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A GRAMMAR
OF THE
IRISH LANGUAGE

P. W. JOYCE, LL.D., T.C.D., M.R.I.A.



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A GRAMMAR

OF THE

IRISH LANGUAGE

BY

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PREFACE.

THOUGH this text-book is small, it comprises, I believe, everything necessary—so far as grammar is concerned—for a student of modern Irish. I have not treated at all of the ancient forms of the language; and I have excluded everything in the shape of dissertation: the grammar of the modern Irish language, and no more, is here set forth in words as few and simple as possible.

I have not suggested any changes either in spelling or in grammatical forms, or attempted innovation of any kind: this is a grammar of the language as it actually exists in the works of our best writers.

All the illustrative examples are quotations from standard Irish writings; but though I retain the references, I have not given them in the grammar, as they would encumber the book, and impede, rather than facilitate the learner. I may mention here, however, that the works from which the examples are chiefly taken, are, those of Keating, the publications of the Ossianic Society, "The Three Sorrowful Stories of Erin" (viz., "The Fate of the Children of Usna," "The Fate of the Children of Lir," and "The Fate of the Children of Turenn"), and occasionally the "Annals of the Four Masters." The language of the various works published by the Archaeological and Celtic Societies is generally too antiquated to be quoted in a grammar of modern Irish.

I have all through given word-for-word translations of the examples; free translations would have been more pleasant to read, but would have added considerably to the learner's difficulty.

In the last Part—"Idioms"—I have given a popular rather than a scientific explanation of the principal idioms of the language. Nothing like this is to be found in any other Irish Grammar; and I believe that the learner who masters it will be saved much labour and perplexity.

There are several other Irish Grammars, but none low enough in price to be within reach of the many. Whoever wishes to study the Irish language in its ancient as well as in its modern forms, must procure O'Donovan's Grammar; without this great work no one can attain a thorough knowledge of the language. I may also mention "The College Irish Grammar," by the Rev. Ulick J. Canon Bourke, in which there is a great amount of miscellaneous information on the language, proverbs, and popular literature of Ireland.

The labours of the Society for the Preservation of the Irish Language have lately given a great impetus to Celtic studies. The Society has produced two admirable little elementary books (the First and Second Irish Books) and are about to bring out a third, all drawn up by the members themselves on the plan of the elementary works of Smith, Arnold, Ahn, &c. But the want of a very cheap and simple text-book on Irish Grammar has been much felt; and this Grammar has been written to supply the want. I have written it with the cognisance of the Council of the Society, of which I am myself a member. It was at first intended that the name of the Society should appear on the title-page along with my own name, and a resolution to that effect was passed by the Council. But I found some difficulty as to the exact words, and I have accordingly contented myself with mentioning the matter here.

I acknowledge with thanks that I have received valuable assistance from several gentlemen of the Society, who read every word of my proofs, suggesting various corrections, alterations, and improvements. One member in particular, Mr. John Fleming of Rathgormuck, in the county Waterford, read all my manuscript in the first instance, and all the proof-sheets afterwards. Mr. Fleming's assistance was invaluable to me, for he possesses an intimate knowledge of modern Irish Grammar, language, and literature, and what is still better, much sound sense and clear critical judgment.

Dublin, November, 1878.

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SCHOOL IRISH GRAMMAR.

PART I.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

CHAPTER I.

SOUNDS.

I. LETTERS.

1. The Irish alphabet consists of eighteen letters, of which thirteen are consonants and five are vowels.

2. The five vowels are a, e, i, o, u; of which a, o, u are broad, and e, i are slender.

3. Each consonant (with the exceptions mentioned below) has a broad and a slender sound. When a consonant comes immediately after or before a broad vowel, it has its broad sound: when it comes after or before a slender vowel, it has its slender sound. But this does not apply to b, p, h, m, n, each of which has one sound only, whether joined with a broad vowel or a slender vowel.

4. Vowels are either long or short. A long vowel is usually marked by an accent; as b́án, white: a short vowel has no mark; as mac, a son.

5. The Irish vowels, like the English, have an obscure sound in unaccented syllables, of which it is not necessary to take further notice here.

6. The following are the usual sounds of the Irish letters, so far as they can be represented by English letters.

7. Those marked with asterisks are only imperfectly represented in sound by the corresponding English letters: those not so marked are represented perfectly or very nearly so.

8. The sounds of the marked letters must be learned by ear: it is hardly possible to give in writing such a description of them as would enable a learner to utter them.

9. C is equal to *k*, yet when it comes before the diphthong *ao* or the triphthong *aoi*, beginners find it very hard to sound it: *caol* (narrow) is neither *kail* or *quail*, but something between: *caom* (gentle) is neither *keen* or *qucen*, but something between.

10. So also with *g*, which (broad and slender) is equal to *g* in *got* and *get*: yet *gaol* is hard for a beginner to utter, being neither *gail* nor *gwail*, but something between.

11. The Irish broad *d* and *t* bear the same relation to each other as the English *d* and *t*; that is, the first in each case is flat or soft, and the second sharp or hard. English *d* and *t* are sounded by placing the tip of the tongue against the roof of the mouth: Irish *d* and *t* by placing the top of the tongue against the upper front teeth. Irish *d* and *t* may be described in another way: the two sounds of *th* in *those* and *thumb* are both *continuous*, the first flat, the second sharp. Now the two *explosive* sounds corresponding to these two continuous sounds (i.e., with the tongue in the same position), are exactly the Irish *d* and *t*.

12. Broad *l* and *n* are sounded by placing the top of the tongue (not against the roof of the mouth as in case of English *l* and *n* but) against the upper front teeth. Irish *d* and *t* are to English *d* and *t* as Irish *l* or *n* to English *l* or *n*.

13. Slender *p* is the most difficult of all the Irish consonantal sounds: and learners, unless they have acquired it in youth, often fail to articulate it correctly, though the teacher may sound *p* over and over again for their imitation.

14. As *h* represents a mere breathing or aspiration and not an articulate sound, and as it never begins a word, some writers exclude it from the letters, thus making seventeen instead of eighteen, as given here.

TABLE OF SOUNDS.

Letters.		Vowel long or short.	Consonant broad or slender.	Irish sounds.	Corresponding English sounds.	
Irish.	Eng.					
á	a	a	long	..	lán	lawn, ball
à	à		short	..	mac	bat or what
b	b	b	ball	ban
c	c	c	..	broad	cab	cob
o	o	d	..	slender	cunn	king
ò	ò	d	..	broad	dall	those
é	e	e	..	slender	dian	cordial
è	e	e	long	..	mé	date
é	e	e	short	..		met
f	f	f	finn	fin
g	g	g	..	broad	gorc	got
h	h	h	..	slender	geir	get, gimlet
i	i	i	a h-anam	hammer
í	i	i	long	..	mín	seen
ì	i	i	short	..	mín	pin
l	l	l	..	broad	lón	lone
l	l	l	..	slender	pile	vermilion
m	m	m	mil	mill
n	n	n	..	broad	nór	none
n	n	n	..	slender	neab	new
o	o	o	long	..	mór	more
ó	o	o	short	..	dor	love, run
p	p	p	poc	pore
r	r	r	..	broad	ród	road
r	r	r	..	slender	cuir	clarion
s	s	s	..	broad	rona	son
s	s	s	..	slender	rín	sheen
t	t	t	..	broad	tom	thumb
t	t	t	..	slender	teine	courteous
u	u	u	long	..	múr	moor, rude
ú	u	u	short	..	muc	put, bull

15. The following are the native names of the Irish letters, but they need not be used by the learner. All or most of them are the names of trees. áilm, *a*; beicé, *b*; coll, *c*; daip, *d*; eaða, *e*; fearn, *f*; gorc, *g*; uaé, *h*; ióga, *i*; luip, *l*; muin, *m*; num, *n*; oip or onn, *o*; peicé-boé, *p*; ruip, *r*; ruil, *s*; teine, *t*; úp, *u*.

II. DIPHTHONGS.

1. There are thirteen diphthongs in the Irish language—viz., æ, œ, eu, ia, ua, ai, ea, ei, eo, io, iu, oi, ui; of which the first five are always long, and the remaining eight are sometimes long and sometimes short.

2. The following are the sounds of the five long diphthongs :—

3. æ sounds like *ay* in *slay*; as *pæ*, the moon, pronounced *ray*.

4. œ, in the southern half of Ireland, sounds nearly like *way*, and in the west and north-west somewhat like *we*. Thus *maop*, a steward, is pronounced like *mwair* in the south, and like *mwээр* in the west and north-west.

5. eu like *ai* in *lair*; as in *peup*, grass, pronounced *fair*.

6. ia like *ee* in *beer*; as in *ciap*, dark-coloured, pronounced *keer*.

7. ua nearly like *oe* in *doer*; as in *luan*, Monday, pronounced *loo-an*.

8. The following are the sounds of the eight diphthongs that are sometimes long and sometimes short. When these diphthongs are long there is an accent over one of the vowels: when short there is no accent.

9. á long has an accent over the *a*, and sounds something like the *awi* in *drawing*; as in *cán*, tribute, pronounced *caw-in*.

ai short is sounded something like the *a* in *valiant* or the *o* in *collier*; as in *maic̄*, good, whose sound is very nearly represented by *moh*.

In Ulster, ai short is pronounced like short *e* in *bell*; as in *aiptic*, restitution, which is pronounced *ashoe* in the north, and *ashoe* in the south and west.

10. éa long has an accent over the *e*, and sounds

like *ea* in *bear*; thus *méap*, a finger, is pronounced *mare*.

ea short sounds like *ea* in *heart* (but shorter); as in *peap*, knowledge, pronounced *fass*.

11. *éi* long has an accent over the *e*, and sounds like *ei* in *rein*; as *péim*, a course, pronounced *raim*.

eí short, like *e* in *sell*; as in *ceip*, a basket, sounded like *kesh*.

12. *eó* long has an accent over the *o*, and is sounded nearly like long English *o* with a slight sound of *y* before it; as in *ceól*, music, which will be correctly pronounced if a *k* sound is put before the word *yole*.

eo short, nearly like *u* in *shut*, with *y* before it; as in *ðeoç*, drink.

Note.—This diphthong is short in only a very few words.

13. *ío* long has an accent over the *i*, and sounds very like *ea* in *hear*; as in *píon*, wine, pronounced *feen* or *fee-on*.

io short, nearly like short *i*; as in *míopp*, myrrh, which has nearly the same sound as the first syllable of *mirror*.

14. *iú* long has an accent over the *u*, and has the same sound as the diphthongal English *u* in *tune*; as in *píú*, worthy, which is sounded exactly like *few*.

iu short is sounded like the *u* in *put*, with a *y* before it; as in *pluüç*, wet.

15. *óí* long has an accent over the *o*, and is sounded like the *owi* in *owing*; as in *póil*, a while, pronounced *fó-il*.

oi short like the *o* in *love*, with a very short *i* at the end; as in *toił*, the will.

16. *úí* long, with an accent over the *u*, is sounded like *ooi* in *cooing*; as *púil*, the eye, pronounced *soo-il*.

uī long, with an accent over the *ī*, has nearly the same sound as *we*; as in buíðe, yellow, which is pronounced *bwee*.

ui short is like the *ui* in *quill*; as in fuiréóð, a lark, pronounced *fuishoge*.

III. TRIPHTHONGS.

1. There are commonly reckoned five triphthongs, which are always long:—aoī, eoī, iaī, iui, uaī.

2. Aoī is sounded very like *we*, as in maoin, wealth, pronounced *mween*.

3. Eoī is sounded like the *yoi* in the combination *yō-ing*; as in feoil, flesh, which will be correctly pronounced if the sound of *f* is put before the combination *yō-il*.

4. Iaī is sounded like *eei* in *seeing*; as liaið, a physician.

5. Iui like the *ewi* in *mewing*; as ciuin, gentle.

6. Uaī like *ooi* in *cooing*; as buaib, strike, which is sounded *boo-il*.

7. The preceding attempts to represent the sounds of the diphthongs and triphthongs are in many cases mere approximations. The student must hear them pronounced, and in no other way is it possible to learn to sound them correctly.

IV. VARIOUS SOUNDS.

1. *U* and *o* before *m*, *nn*, *ll*, or *nð*, in monosyllables, and often before *nt* and *nc*, are sounded in Munster like the *ou* in *foul*; as cam, crooked, and coll, hazel, pronounced *cowm* and *cowl*; and ðleannacán, a small glen, pronounced *glounthawn*: and *o* before *ð* and *ð* has often the same sound; as foðlam, learning, pronounced *fowlim*.

2. *Uð* and *uð* are often sounded like long English *i* in *fine*; as paðape, sight, pronounced

ry-ark; *laðap*, a fork, pronounced *lyre*; *maðm*, a breach, pronounced *mime*.

3. The termination *að* is pronounced in Connaught nearly the same as *oo*: thus *buclað*, striking, is pronounced *booloo* in Connaught, but *boola* in Munster.

4. In the combination *ðl*, the *ð* is silent, and the whole is sounded like *l* or *ll*; as *coðlað*, sleep, pronounced *culla*.

5. In the combination *ln*, the *n* is silent, and the whole is sounded like *l* or *ll*; as *colna*, of a body, pronounced *culla*.

6. In the combination *ðn*, the *ð* is silent, and the whole is sounded the same as *n* or *nn*; as *céaðna*, the same, pronounced *kaina*.

7. Final *e* is never entirely silent in Irish as it is in English; thus *míne*, smoothness, is pronounced *meena*. In some situations it is very nearly silent in the modern language; as in *croiðe*, a heart, pronounced *cree*.

8. There are some Irish consonants which, when they come together in a word, do not coalesce in sound, so that when they are uttered, a *very* short obscure vowel sound is heard between them.

This generally occurs in the case of two liquids, or a liquid and a mute. Thus *lopḡ*, a track, is pronounced so as to seem, to an ear accustomed to English, a word of two syllables; not *lurg* but *lurrug*. *Dealb*, a shape, is sounded, not *dalv*, but *dallav*; *peapb*, bitter, is sounded *sharrav*; *bopb*, proud, is pronounced *burrub*; *colḡ*, a sword, *cullug*, and so on. In Irish prosody, however, such words as these count as only one syllable.

In the English language no such difficulty exists in regard to most of these letters; they coalesce perfectly in sound, so that each of the above words would be a pure monosyllable.

CHAPTER II.

LETTER CHANGES.

I. ASPIRATION.

1. The term "aspiration" is used to express a certain change of sound suffered by some of the Irish consonants under certain grammatical conditions.

2. It is impossible to give a definition of aspiration that will correctly describe all the cases, inasmuch as the changes of sound vary in kind with the several consonants. In most cases the change caused by aspiration is one from an *explosive* to a *continuous* sound.

3. There are nine consonants which can be aspirated, namely, b, c, d, f, g, m, p, r, t; these are called mutable or aspirable consonants; the others are called immutable. The aspiration is denoted either by placing a point over the consonant, as *ċ*; or by placing h after it, as *ch*.

4. The following are the sounds of the aspirated consonants so far as they can be represented by English letters.

5. bh or b̄ is sounded sometimes like *v* and sometimes like *w*, and it often has a sound something between both; as a bean, his wife, pronounced *a van*; gabal, a fork, pronounced *gowal*.

6. Ch broad has a guttural sound which is not represented in English; but it is heard in the pronunciation of the word *lough*, Irish loċ, a lake.

Ch slender (i.e. joined with a slender vowel) has a less guttural sound than *ċ* broad; as míċiall, folly, in which the *ċ* sound is only a little more guttural than *h* in *mee-heel*.

7. Oh and ḡ have the same sound. When slender, they are sounded like initial *y* in English; as a ġean, his love, pronounced *a yan*. Oh and ḡ

broad have a guttural sound which cannot be represented by English letters, though it is something like initial *y* or initial *w*; it stands to the guttural sound of broad *é* in the relation of flat to hard. Both these aspirated letters are silent at the end of a word; as *picö*, a deer, pronounced *fee-a*.

But in south Munster the final *g* is fully sounded, like *g* in *fig*: as *Copcaig* (dative of *Copcaic*, Cork), pronounced *curkig* in Munster, but *curkee* elsewhere.

8. *Ph* is always silent; thus *a phop*, his knowledge, is pronounced *a iss*; *an pheadóg*, the plover, pronounced *an addoge*.

9. *Mh* is very nearly the same as *b*, viz., like *v* or *w*; as *a mhár*, his dish, pronounced *a vee-as*.

10. *Ph* has the sound of *f*, as *a phán*, his pain, pronounced *a fee-an*.

11. *Sh* and *é* are the same as *h*; as *a pháil*, his heel, pronounced *a haul*; *a éobair*, his well, pronounced *a hubber*.

II. RULES FOR ASPIRATION.*

1. The possessive pronouns *mo*, *my*; *thú*, *thy*; and *a*, *his*, aspirate the first consonant of the next word: as *mo bó*, *my cow*; *thú ceann*, *thy head*; *a gort*, *his garden*.

2. The article aspirates in the singular feminine nominative and accusative; † as *an bean*, *the woman*. (See also p. 18, Par. 6, and p. 31.)

3. The article aspirates in the genitive singular masculine; as *an ghuirte*, *of the garden*.

* These rules cannot be fully understood without a knowledge of Etymology. It must be borne in mind that they apply only to the aspirable or mutable consonants.

† Irish nouns have no inflection for the accusative (or objective) case; but it is often convenient to speak of nouns in the accusative, by which is meant the case where the noun is the object of a transitive verb, or sometimes of a preposition.

NOTE.—This rule and the preceding do not apply to the letter *p*. (See also p. 18, Par. 6, and p. 31.)

4. In compound words, the initial consonant of the second word of the compound is aspirated (with a few exceptions): thus from *ceann*, a head, and *bpat*, a garment, is formed *ceannbpat*, head-garment or canopy. (See also p. 34, Par. 2.)

5. The interjections *a* and *O*, as signs of the vocative case, aspirate; as *a p̄ip*, *O* man.

6. An adjective agreeing with a noun has its initial consonant aspirated when the noun is nominative singular feminine, or genitive singular masculine, or vocative singular of both genders; and, according to O'Donovan, in the nominative plural masculine, when the noun ends in a consonant; as *bó bán*, a white cow; *cat bán*, of a white cat; *a p̄ip m̄óip*, *O* great man; *a bean p̄eim*, *O* mild woman; *capall bána*, white horses. (*o* and *τ* are sometimes excepted: see p. 34.)

7. The initial consonant of a verb is aspirated (1) in the infinitive mood by the particles *do* and *a*; as *do óéanao* or *a óéanao*, to do: (2), in the simple past tense, active voice; as *do p̄ear pé*, he stood: (3) by the particles *ní*, not, and *má*, if: as *ní beio pí*, she will not be; *má p̄earann pé*, if he stands; (4), by the relative *a*, who, (expressed or understood); as *an té a buailear* the person who strikes. (See also pp. 58 and 60.)

8. The simple prepositions, with some exceptions, aspirate the initial consonants of nouns: as *ar bápp*, on top; *do mullaó*, to a summit; *paoi ḡean*, under affection.

III. ECLIPSIS.

1. A consonant is said to be eclipsed, or to suffer eclipis, when its sound is suppressed, and the sound of another consonant which is prefixed to it, substituted: thus in *n-óán*, *o* is eclipsed by *n*

and the whole word is pronounced *nawn*, whereas *ón* is pronounced *dawn*. It is only at the beginning of words that consonants are eclipsed.

2. The following eight consonants can be eclipsed:—b, c, d, f, g, p, r, s; the others cannot. Between the eclipsing and the eclipsed letter there is usually placed a hyphen, as m-bárð; but often they are put together without any separating mark, as bpopt. Sometimes eclipsis is denoted by the doubling of the eclipsed letter; thus a ττarpð is the same as a d-τarpð, their bull.

3. Each consonant has an eclipsing letter of its own.

4. b is eclipsed by m; as a m-bárð, their bard, pronounced *a mawrd*.

5. c is eclipsed by g: as a g-coll, their hazel, pronounced *a gowl* or *a gull*.

6. d by n; as a n-dop, their bush, pronounced *a nuss*.

7. f by v (which itself sounds like *v* or *w*); as a v-peapann, their land, pronounced *a varran*.

8. g is eclipsed by n. But this is not a true eclipsis, for the resulting sound is not that of n, but the sound of English *ng*; thus a ngrilla, their servant, is pronounced *ang-illa*.

9. p is eclipsed by b; as a b-pian, their pain, pronounced *a bee-an*.

10. s is eclipsed by t, as in an t-púil, the eye, pronounced *an too-il*.

11. t is eclipsed by d; as a d-tál, their adze, pronounced *a dawl*.

IV. RULES FOR ECLIPSIS.*

1. The possessive pronouns plural—ár, our.

* These rules apply of course only to those consonants that can be eclipsed. The rules for eclipsis, like those for aspiration, suppose a knowledge of Etymology.

bup, your; a, their; eclipse the initial consonant of the next word; as ár ð-tiḡearna, our Lord; bup ḡ-cpánn, your tree; a b-páirc, their field.*

2. The article eclipses the initial consonant of nouns in the genitive plural; as teaç na m-bárb, the house of the bards; ḡort na ḡ-capall, the field of the horses.

3. When a simple preposition is followed by the article and a noun in the singular number, the initial consonant of the noun is generally eclipsed; as aip an m-bórb, on the table; ó'n b-pairḡe, from the sea. (See p. 31; see also Syntax.)

4. The initial consonant of a verb is eclipsed after the interrogative particles a, an, cá, naç; also after ḡo, that; muna, unless; iap, after; dá, if; and after the relative a preceded by a preposition; as a m-beipeann pe? Does he bear? an m-buail-eann tú? Dost thou strike? cá b-puil rí? Where is she? naç ð-tuigeann tu? Dost thou not understand? ḡo m-beannaige Dia ðuit, may God bless thee; muna ð-tuirtip, unless thou shalt fall; dá n-dearpann, if I would say; an típ ann a ð-tamc riab, the country into which they came.

5. When a noun beginning with p is preceded by the article, the p is eclipsed when the noun is nominative feminine, or genitive masculine, and generally in the dative of both genders, as an t-paoipre (fem.), the freedom; ḡort an t-paḡairt, the field of the priest; aip an t-paoḡal, or aip an paoḡal, in the world. But if the p is followed by b, c, ð, ḡ, m, p, or t, it is not eclipsed; as ḡleann an pmóil, the valley of the thrush; loç an pçáil, the lake of the champion. (See pp. 30 and 31.)

* Rules 1, 2, 3, 4, do not apply to p. See for this letter Rule 5.

6. The following rule is usually given with the rules for eclipsis :—

When a word begins with a vowel, the letter *n* is generally prefixed in all cases where an initial consonant (except *p*) would be eclipsed ; as *a n-apán*, their bread ; *loč na n-éan*, the lake of the birds.*

v. *Caol le caol aḡur leačan le leačan*, OR SLENDER WITH SLENDER AND BROAD WITH BROAD.†

1. If a consonant or any combination of consonants comes between two vowels, they must be either both slender or both broad ; thus in *ḡolap*, light, the *o* and the *a* are both broad vowels ; and in *činneap*, sickness, the *i* and the *e* are both slender vowels. But such combinations as *ḡolip* and *činnap* are not allowable, because the *o* and the *i* in the first case, and the *i* and the *a* in the second case, are one of them broad and the other slender.

2. In compliance with this rule, when two words, or a word and a syllable, are joined together, so that in the resulting word a consonant or consonantal combination would fall between two vowels, one of them broad and the other slender, then either the broad vowel must be made slender or the slender one broad, to bring them to an agreement.

3. Sometimes the broad vowel is changed to make it agree with the slender vowel ; sometimes the slender vowel is made broad to agree with the broad vowel ; sometimes it is the vowel before the consonant that is changed ; sometimes the change is made in the vowel after the consonant. A prefix is generally changed to suit the word it is joined to, not the reverse ; thus when *cóm* is prefixed to *ḡeapam*, standing, the word is *cómḡeapam*, competition, not *cómḡapam*.

* For a very detailed and clear statement of the laws of aspiration and eclipsis, see the Second Irish Book by the Society for the preservation of the Irish Language.

† This rule is very generally, but not universally, followed in the Irish language.

4. Changing a broad vowel to a slender is called in Irish *caoluḡaḃ* (i.e., making slender, from *caol*, slender), and in English *attenuation*; changing from slender to broad is called in Irish *leaṡnuḡaḃ* (i.e., making broad, from *leaṡan*, broad).

5. Attenuation takes place chiefly in two ways:—first by putting a slender vowel between the broad vowel and the consonant, as when *ball*, a spot, is changed to *baill*, spots; or when *pa* is postfixed to *buail*, and the resulting word is *buailpeá*, not *buailpa*: secondly, by removing the broad vowel which precedes or follows the consonant, and putting a slender vowel in its place; as when *ceann*, a head, is changed to *cinn*, of a head.

6. In like manner “making broad” takes place chiefly in two ways, which are the reverse of the two preceding.

7. The following examples will illustrate the preceding rules and remarks:—

8. When the future termination *paḃ* is added to *buail*, the resulting word is not *buailpaḃ*, but *buailpeaḃ*, I shall strike.

9. When the infinitive termination *aḃ* is added to *buail*, the resulting word is not *buailaḃ* but *bualaḃ*.

10. When *móir*, great, is prefixed to *cion*, love, the compound is not *móircion* but *móiréion*, great love.

11. When *ceann*, head, is prefixed to *litr*, a letter, the compound is not *ceannlitr* but *cinnlitr*, a head-letter or capital letter. (This is a case of irregular attenuation.)

12. When the diminutive termination *óg* is added to *cuil*, the resulting word is not *cuilóg* but *cuilleóg*, a fly.

13. When *e* is added to *orpóg*, a thumb, to inflect it for the genitive, the word is not *orpóge* but *orpóige*, of a thumb.

14. When the diminutive termination *ín* is added to *capall*, a horse, the whole word is not *capallín* but *capallín*.

VI. SYNCOPE.

1. Syncope, or the omission of one or more letters from the body of a word, is very common in Irish.

2. When a short vowel occurs between a liquid (*b*, *n*, *p*, or *r*) and a mute, or between two liquids, the word is often syncopated when it is lengthened either by grammatical inflection or otherwise.

3. The syncope generally consists in the omission of the short vowel; but this change often involves others in accordance with the rule *caol le caol &c.*; and is often also accompanied by some slight consonantal changes.

4. The following examples exhibit the chief types of syncope.

5. *Lánaia*, a married couple; plural *lánaína*, contracted from *lánaína*.

6. *Lapaip*, a flame; plural *lappaça*, contracted from *lappaça*.

7. *Ɔocal*, a word; *Ɔoclóip*, a dictionary, contracted from *Ɔocalóip*.

8. *Saibip*, rich; comparative *Ɔaibpe*, contracted from *Ɔaibpe*.

9. *Caçaip*, a city; genitive *caçpaç*, contracted from *caçapaç*.

10. *Ɔlaičeamail*, princely; comparative *Ɔlaičeamala*, contracted from *Ɔlaičeamala*.

11. *Colann*, the body, genitive *colna*, (sometimes *colla*), contracted from *colanna*.

12. *Capa*, genitive *capað*: the plural is formed by adding *e* to this, which syncopates the second *a*: this would make *capðe*, which again, in accordance with the rule *caol le caol &c.*, is made *caipðe*.

13. *Uapal*, noble, becomes *uaple* in the comparative, by a process exactly similar to the last.

14. *Ɔollup*, evident, becomes *Ɔollpe* in the comparative in a similar way.

15. *Aġann*, a river: the plural is formed by adding *e*; this causes syncope of the second *a* and the omission of one *n*, which would make the plural *aġne*; and this again becomes *aġne*, by the rule *caol le caol &c.*

16. *ġaġaip*, speak (imperative mood); *ġaġpaim*, I speak, contracted from *ġaġapaim*,

PART II.

ETYMOLOGY.

1. There are nine parts of speech in Irish, which are the same as those in English.

CHAPTER I.

THE ARTICLE.

I. CHANGE OF FORM IN THE ARTICLE.

1. The Irish language has one article, *an*, which has the same meaning as the English definite article *the*.

2. The article changes its form according to number, gender, and case.

3. In the singular number the article has the form *an* in all the cases except the genitive feminine, in which it becomes *na*; as *caisleán na cipce*, the castle of the hen.

In the plural number the article is always *na*.

4. In the spoken language the *n* of *an* is often omitted before a consonant; as *ceann a tairb*, the head of the bull. And this is sometimes found in books also, both printed and MS., but it is not to be recommended.

5. When *an* follows a preposition ending in a vowel, the *a* is often omitted in writing, but the omission is usually marked by an apostrophe; thus, *ó an tír*, from the land, is written *ó'n tír*; and *pá an ngréim*, under the sun, is written *pá'n ngréim*.

Very often in MSS., and sometimes in printed books, the apostrophe in such cases is omitted, and the *n* of the article joined with the preposition; as *ὄν τῆρ, πάν η̄ρη̄ν*.

6. In the plural the article (*να*) is often joined to the preposition; as *ὄνα*, for *ὄο να*.

7. The letter *ρ* is inserted between certain prepositions and the article *αν*; and this occasionally leads to combinations that might puzzle a learner. Thus *ανν αν λε̄αβαν*, in the book, is written *ανρ αν λε̄αβαν*, and *ιρ αν λε̄αβαν*, which is still further shortened to *ραν λε̄αβαν*: also (omitting the *n*) *ανρα λε̄αβαν*, and even *ρα λε̄αβαν*. And in the plural, *ιρ να κορρᾱβ*, "in the bodies"

II. CHANGES PRODUCED BY THE ARTICLE.

1. The article produces certain changes in the initial letters of nouns to which it is prefixed.

2. These changes are very important, and the learner will obtain a clearer view of them by separating the singular from the plural. For more on this subject, see page 31.

SINGULAR.

1. If the noun begins with an aspirable consonant (except *ρ, τ, υ*), the article aspirates in the nominative feminine, and in the genitive masculine; as *αν β̄ό*, the cow; *ε̄αν αν ῥ̄ιρ ἰ̄όρ*, the harbour of the great man.

2. If the noun begins with *ρ*, followed by a vowel or by *λ, ν, or π*, the *ρ* is eclipsed by *τ* in those cases where, according to the last rule, a mutable consonant would be aspirated; as *αν τ-ρ̄άλ* (fem.), the heel; *αν τ-ρ̄ρόν* (fem.), the nose; *ε̄αν αν τ-ρ̄ριαν* (masc.), the price of the bridle.

3. If the noun begins with a vowel, the article prefixes *τ* to the nominative masculine, and *η* to the genitive feminine; as *αν τ-ᾱταρ*, the father; *ε̄αβαν να η-ῡί̄ορ*, the book of the dun (cow).

4. If the noun begins with an eclipsable consonant (except *υ* or *τ*), the article *generally* eclipses, if it be preceded by a simple preposition; as *αν*

an ḡ-cpann, on the tree; ó'n b-ƿocal íber, "from the word 'íber;'" leip an b-ƿear, with the man.

5. But after the prepositions do and de, the article aspirates oftener than it eclipses; as ceíche céime do'n ériop, four degrees of the zone (Keating); do leanabap a ḡ-copa do'n éppaig, their feet clung to the rock (story of the Children of Lir).

6. No change is produced by the article in the singular number, if the noun begins with l, n, p, b, t, or with ƿ before a mute.

PLURAL.

1. If the noun begins with an eclipsable consonant, the article eclipses in the genitive; as inip na b-ƿíóðbaó, [the] island of the woods; caulín deap epúíóte na m-bó, [the] pretty girl of [the] milking of the cows (i.e., the pretty milking girl).

2. If the noun begins with a vowel, the article prefixes n to the genitive, and h to the other cases; as típ na n-óḡ, the land of the young (people); ó na h-áitib ƿin, from those places.

These are the only changes produced by the article in the plural.

CHAPTER II.

THE NOUN.

I. GENDER.

1. There are only two genders in the Irish language, the masculine and feminine: all Irish nouns, therefore, are either masculine or feminine gender.

2. In ancient Irish there was a neuter gender, but no trace of it remains in the modern language.

3. To know and remember the gender of all ordinary Irish nouns is one of the great difficulties in learning the language,

as it is in learning French and many other languages. Without this knowledge, which can only be mastered by practice, no one can speak or write Irish correctly.

4. There are a few general rules which will very much help the learner to distinguish the gender of nouns: they are only *general* rules, however, subject to many exceptions; and where they do not apply, the student must depend on practice and memory.

MASCULINE.

1. The following nouns are generally masculine:—

(1.) Names of males; as *coileac*, a cock; *laoc* a hero; *feap*, a man.

(2.) Nouns of more than one syllable, ending in a consonant, or two consonants, preceded by a broad vowel; as *doičceall*, churlishness: except (a), derivatives in *ac̄t*; (b), diminutives in *óg*.

(3.) Nouns ending in *óip*, *aip*, *ac̄*, *aíde* (or *oide*, or *uide*), when they denote personal agents, as they generally do; as *ppealaóip*, a mower; *pealgaip*, a hunter; *ceičeapnač*, a soldier—one of a body of *kerns*; *ṛḡéalaíde* or *ṛḡéuluíde*, a story-teller.

(4.) Diminutives in *án* and abstracts in *ap*; as *coileán*, a whelp; *cáipbear*, friendship.

(5.) Diminutives in *ín* are of the same gender as the nouns from which they are derived.

FEMININE.

2. The following nouns are generally feminine:—

(1.) Names of females; names of countries, rivers, and diseases; as *cearc*, a hen; *Eipe*, Ireland; *beapba*, the Barrow; *pláig*, a plague.

(2.) Diminutives in *óg*, and derivatives in *ac̄t*; as *puireóg*, a lark; *cum̄pačt*, fragrance: and abstract nouns formed from the genitive feminine of adjectives; as *baíle*, blindness

(3). Nouns ending in a consonant, or in two consonants, preceded by a slender vowel (except those in óir); as rúil, the eye; róglum, learning.

II. DECLENSIONS.

CASES.

1. Irish nouns have four cases, that is, four different inflections, to express relation:—Nominative, genitive, dative, and vocative.

2. The nominative case is the same as the nominative in English.

3. The genitive is the same as what is called the possessive case in English.

4. The dative is the case where a noun is governed by a preposition.

5. The vocative case is the same as what is called the nominative of address in English.

6. Irish nouns have different forms for these four cases and for no others. Thus, the four cases of bradáin, a salmon, are for the plural number, as follows:—Nom. bradáin, as trí bradáin, three salmon; gen. bradáin, as loch na m-bradáin, the lake of the salmon; dat. bradáinaib, as do na bradáinaib, to the salmon; voc. bradáina, as a bradáina, ca b-puil ríib aḡ dul? “O ye salmon, whither are ye going?”

7. These four cases are not always different in form; thus the four cases of the same noun in the singular number are:—Nom. bradáin; gen. bradáin; dat. bradáin; voc. bradáin; in which it will be seen that the dative is the same as the nominative, and the vocative the same as the genitive.

8. Those cases which are alike in form are distinguished by the sense; just as the nominative and objective cases are distinguished in English.

9. Some writers on Irish grammar have put in two more cases, in imitation of Latin declension; the accusative (or, as it is called in English, the objective) and the ablative. But in Irish there are no separate inflections for them, the accusative being always the same in form as the nominative.

and the ablative the same as the dative; so that it would be only a useless puzzle to the learner to include them in a statement of Irish declension. In certain explanations, however, and in the statement of certain rules, it is sometimes convenient to speak of the accusative case.

10. Different nouns have different inflections for the same case; thus the datives singular of *cop*, a foot, and *boḡ*, a bush, are different, namely, *coip* and *boḡ*. But though this variation extends to most of the cases, the genitive singular is taken as the standard, in comparing the declension of one noun with the declension of another.

11. There are five chief ways of forming the genitive singular of Irish nouns; and in one or another of these ways, far the greatest number of nouns in the language form their genitive. There are usually reckoned, therefore, FIVE DECLENSIONS of Irish nouns.

12. Besides these there are other genitive inflections, but as no one of them comprises any considerable number of nouns, it is not considered necessary to lay down more than five declensions. The number of declensions is, however, very much a matter of convenience; and, accordingly, in some Irish grammars, there are more than five, and in some less.

FIRST DECLENSION.

1. The first declension comprises masculine nouns which have their characteristic vowel, that is, the last vowel of the nominative singular, broad.

2. The genitive singular is formed by attenuating the broad vowel.

3. In the singular, the dative is like the nominative, and the vocative is like the genitive; in the plural, the nominative is generally like the genitive singular, and the genitive like the nominative singular. Example, *ball*, a member or limb.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom.* ball.	Nom. baill.
Gen. baill.	Gen. ball.
Dat. ball.	Dat. ballaib̄.
Voc. a baill.	Voc. a balla

4. The number of nouns that belong to this declension is very large; but though they all form their genitive singular in the same way (except those in *ac̄*, in which there is a slight additional change, for which see next paragraph), there are a few which vary in the formation of other cases.

5. Nouns in *ac̄*, in addition to the attenuation, change *ō* into *ō̇* in the genitive singular; and generally form the nominative plural by adding *e* to the genitive singular; and from this again is formed the dative plural in *ib̄*, in accordance with the rule in Par. 9, page 23. Example, *mapcaç*, a horseman.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. mapcaç.	Nom. mapcaçe.
Gen. mapcaç̇.	Gen. mapcaç
Dat. mapcaç.	Dat. mapcaçib̄.
Voc. a mapcaç̇.	Voc. a mapcaça.

6. A few nouns make their nominative plural by an increase in *a*; as *peann*, a pen; plur. *peanna*: and some of these are syncopated, as *uball*, an apple; plur. *ubla*.

7. In a few nouns of this declension the nominative plural is formed by adding *ta* or *tā* to the nominative singular; as *peól*, a sail; nom. plur. *peóлта*; dat. plur. *peóлтаib̄*: *múr*, a wall; nom. plur. *múrta*; dat. plur. *múrtaib̄*.

8. In many words of one syllable belonging to this declension, the attenuation in the genitive singular causes considerable change in the vowel or diphthongal part of the word; thus, *copp*, a body; gen. *cuirp*: *iarç*, a fish; gen. *éirç*:

* It would be well for the learner, when declining nouns, to call this "nominative and accusative" all through the declensions.

neapɾ, strength; gen. neipɾ or nipɾ: peap, a man; gen. pɪp: cpann, a tree; gen. cpomn: béal, a mouth; gen. béil or beoil.

The three following rules (9, 10, and 11) apply to all the declensions.

9. The dative plural ends in *ib*.

This *ib* corresponds with the Latin dative and ablative termination *ibus* or *bus*. It is now very seldom pronounced, but it is nearly always retained in writing; just as in English, *gh*, which was formerly sounded as a guttural in such words as *plough*, *daughter*, is retained in writing, though it is no longer pronounced.

10. The dative plural is formed from the nominative plural whenever this latter differs from the genitive singular: otherwise from the nominative singular.

11. The vocative is always preceded by the particle *a* or *O*, which aspirates the initial; as *a pɪp*, O man; *a iná*, O women; *O éígeapna*, O Lord.

SECOND DECLENSION.

1. The second declension comprises most of the feminine nouns in the language.

2. The genitive singular is formed by adding *e* to the nominative. If the characteristic vowel is broad, it must be attenuated in accordance with the rule *caol le caol* &c.

3. The dative singular is formed from the genitive singular by dropping the final *e*.

4. When the characteristic vowel is broad, the nominative plural is formed from the nominative singular by adding *a*; when the characteristic vowel is slender, by adding *e*.

5. The genitive plural is generally like the nominative singular.

6. The vocative is usually the same as the nominative, and is accordingly omitted from the paradigm.

First example, *ρεαμρόζ*, a shamrock.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. <i>ρεαμρόζ</i> .	Nom. <i>ρεαμρόζα</i> .
Gen. <i>ρεαμρόζε</i> .	Gen. <i>ρεαμρόζ</i> .
Dat. <i>ρεαμρόζι</i> .	Dat. <i>ρεαμρόζαιβ</i> .

Second example, *πέιρτ*, a worm, a beast.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. <i>πέιρτ</i> .	Nom. <i>πέιρτε</i> .
Gen. <i>πέιρτε</i> .	Gen. <i>πέιρτ</i> .
Dat. <i>πέιρτ</i> .	Dat. <i>πέιρτιβ</i> .

7. Nouns in *αὐ*, when they belong to this declension, change the *ὐ* to *ῶ* in the genitive singular: thus, *κλίρρεαὐ*, a harp, is declined as follows:—

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. <i>κλίρρεαὐ</i> .	Nom. <i>κλίρρεαῶ</i> .
Gen. <i>κλίρριῶε</i> .	Gen. <i>κλίρρεαὐ</i> .
Dat. <i>κλίρριῶ</i> .	Dat. <i>κλίρρεαῶιβ</i> .

8. There are many nouns belonging to this declension which depart from the general rule laid down in Par. 4, in forming their nominative plural.

9. Some, probably over fifty, form the nominative plural by adding *anna*; and these form the genitive plural by dropping the final *α* of this termination; thus, *κύρ*, a cause; nom. plural *κύρεanna*; gen. plural, *κύρεann*; dat. plural, *κύρεannaιβ*.

10. Some form their nominative plural by adding *αῶ*: thus, *οβαίρ*, a work, and *οράίτ*, a prayer, make *οιβρεαῶ* and *οράίτρεαῶ* in the nominative plural.

11. When the characteristic vowel is slender, it is often dropped in the genitive plural; as *ρυαίμ*, a sound; gen. plural *ρυαίμ*.

12. When the nominative plural takes *τε*, the genitive plural is formed by adding *αῶ*; as *κοίλλ*, a wood; nom. plur. *κοίλλτε*; and genitive plural as

seen in *Oileán na g-coillteáð*, the island of the woods (Keating).

13. There are other variations of the nominative and genitive plural; but they do not comprise any considerable number of nouns, and they must be learned by practice.

THIRD DECLENSION.

1. Nouns belonging to the third declension are some of them masculine and some feminine.

2. The genitive singular is formed by adding *a* to the nominative singular.

3. The vocative is like the nominative.

4. The nominative plural is generally formed by adding *a* or *e*.

5. The genitive plural is generally like the nominative singular. Example, *cleap*, a trick or feat.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. <i>cleap</i> .	Nom. <i>cleapa</i> .
Gen. <i>cleapa</i> .	Gen. <i>cleap</i> .
Dat. <i>cleap</i> .	Dat. <i>cleapaib</i> .

6. If the characteristic vowel is slender, it must be made broad in the genitive singular, in accordance with the rule *caol le caol* &c. ; as *coil*, the will, gen. *cola*.

7. Sometimes *τ* or *é* is introduced before the *a* of the genitive singular, which commonly causes other changes by syncope; as *cócaib*, sleep; gen. *cócaita*: *buaib*, trouble, gen. *buaidearta*.

8. This is the case with verbal or participial nouns in *að*, *eað*, and *uð*, the genitives of which have the same form as their passive participles considered as verbs; and they are all commonly reckoned as belonging to this declension, though the genitive singular is formed in some by adding

e, not á; as molað, praising; gen. molta: ríneað stretching; gen. rínte: caoluġað, making slender; gen. caoluiġte.

9. Nouns in aċt generally, and those in eap or 10p, often, belong to this declension; as clirteaċt, dexterity; gen. clirteaċta: 10ilġ10p, sorrow; gen. 10ilġ10pa. But the greater number of those in eap or 10p belong to the first declension; thus the last noun, 10ilġ10p, is often made 10ilġ10p in the genitive; and 10ponntanap, a gift, makes 10ponntanap.

10. There are forty or fifty nouns (many of them ending in 10p), which form their genitive singular in aċ, and which are reckoned as belonging to this declension, though some writers arrange them under a separate declension; as caċap, a city; gen. caċpaċ: Teama10p, Tara, gen. Teama10paċ: ġpá10m, hatred; gen. ġpánaċ.

11. Those in 10p generally form their genitive as above; but aċap, a father; máċap, a mother; and 10páċap, a brother, form their genitive by dropping the final 1:—gen. aċap, máċap, 10páċap.

12. Outside the general rule stated in Par. 4 above, there is considerable variety in the formation of the nominative plural.

13. Those in ó10p generally make the nominative plural by adding 10e; as rpealadó10p, a mower, nom. plur. rpealadó10p10e.

14. And these form the genitive plural variously; generally na rpealadó10p10e, but sometimes na rpealadó10p or na rpealadó10paċ.

15. Others form the nominative plural either like the genitive singular or by adding nna to it; as rpuċ, a stream; gen. rpoċa; nom. pl. rpoċa or rpoċanna: 10pu10m, a back; gen. 10poma; nom. plur. 10poma or 10pomanna.

16. Those that add *nnα*, form the genitive plural by omitting the *α*; as *ρρυτ̃*; gen. plur. *ρρυτ̃ανν*.

17. Many nouns of this declension that end in *n* or *l*, form their plural by adding *τε* or *τα*; as *μόιν*, a bog; gen. sing. *μόνα*; nom. plur. *μόιντε*.

18. And these generally form their genitive plural by adding *α̃* to the nominative plural; as *μόιν*; gen. plur. *μόιντεα̃*.

19. Those that form their genitive singular in *α̃* (10) form the plural by adding *α* to this *α̃*: as *λαρα̃*, a flame; gen. sing. *λαρα̃α̃*; nom. plur. *λαρα̃α*.

FOURTH DECLENSION.

1. Nouns of the fourth declension end in vowels or in *ιν*, and are some of them masculine and some feminine.

2. There is no inflection in the singular, all the cases being alike.

3. The nominative plural is generally formed by adding *ι̃ε* or *α̃α* (with occasionally an obvious vowel change). Example, *άιρνε*, a sloe.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. <i>άιρνε</i> .	Nom. <i>άιρνω̃ε</i> .
Gen. <i>άιρνε</i> .	Gen. <i>άιρνεα̃</i> .
Dat. <i>άιρνε</i> .	Dat. <i>άιρνω̃ι̃β̃</i> .

4. Some form the plural by adding *τε* or *τε̃*: as *τειννε*, a fire; nom. plur. *τεινντε*: *δαοι*, a clown; nom. plur. *δαοιτε̃*; and *αι̃νε*, a commandment, has nom. plur. *αι̃εαντα*.

5. These generally form the genitive plural, by adding *ο̃* or *α̃* (not to the nominative singular, as in the model, but) to the nominative plural: as nom. plur. *δαοιτε̃*, clowns; gen. plur. *δαοιτε̃α̃*.

6. Nouns ending in *αι̃ο̃ε*, *υ̃ι̃ο̃ε*, and *αι̃ρ̃ε*, generally belong to this declension; as *ρ̃ελα̃β̃υ̃ι̃ο̃ε*, a slave; *ρ̃ι̃ο̃βαι̃ρ̃ε*, a piper.

FIFTH DECLENSION.

1. Nouns of the fifth declension are mostly feminine.

2. They generally end in a vowel; and they form their genitive by adding *n* or *nn*, and occasionally *ð* or *τ*.

3. The dative singular is formed from the genitive by attenuation.

4. The nominative plural is formed from the genitive singular by adding *a*.

5. The genitive plural is like the genitive singular.

Example, *uppa*, a door jamb.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. <i>uppa</i> .	Nom. <i>uppana</i> .
Gen. <i>uppan</i> .	Gen. <i>uppan</i> .
Dat. <i>uppan</i> .	Dat. <i>uppanað</i> .

6. To this declension belong the proper names *Eipe*, Ireland; gen. *Eipeann*, dat. *Eipinn*: *Alba*, Scotland; gen., *Alban*, dat. *Albain*: *Muina*, Munster; gen. *Muinan*, dat. *Muinain*; and several others of less note.

7. *Capa*, a friend, is an example of the genitive in *ð*: nom. *capa*; gen. *capað*; dat. *capað*; nom. plur. *cáipde*.

8. There is a good deal of variety in the formation of the cases of nouns belonging to this declension, which can only be learned by practice.*

IRREGULAR DECLENSION.

1. Some nouns are irregular; that is, they are not inflected in accordance with any of the regular declensions.

2. The most important of the irregular nouns are: *—*bean*, a woman; *bó*, a cow; *brú*, a womb;

* For additional examples of declensions of nouns, both regular and irregular, see Appendix at the end of the book.

caopa, a sheep; ceó, a fog; cnó, a hut; cú, a hound; Dia, God; lá, a day; mí, a month; o or ua, a grandson. They are declined as follows. (The vocative is not given where it is like the nominative.)

bean, a woman, fem.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. bean.	Nom. mná.
Gen. mná.	Gen. ban.
Dat. mnaoi.	Dat. mnáib.

bó, a cow, fem.

Nom. bó.	Nom. bá
Gen. bó.	Gen. bó.
Dat. buin.	Dat. búaiḃ.

brú, a womb, fem.

Nom. brú.	Nom. brionna.
Gen. brumne or bronn.	Gen. brionn.
Dat. bromn.	Dat. brionnaib.

Caopa, a sheep, fem.

Nom. caopa.	Nom. caoiriḡ,
Gen. caopaḃ.	Gen. caopaḃ.
Dat. caopa.	Dat. caoiréaib.
Voc. a éaopa.	Voc. a éaoréa.

Ceó, a fog, masc.

Nom. ceó.	Nom. ciaḃ.
Gen. ciaḃ or ceoiḡ.	Gen. ceó.
Dat. ceó.	Dat. ceócaib.

Cnó or cnú, a hut, masc.

Nom. cnó.	Nom. cná, cnai.
Gen. cnó, cnui.	Gen. cnó.
Dat. cnó, cnú.	Dat. cnáib.

Cú, a hound, masc. or fem.

Nom. cú.	Nom. com, cum, cona, or comce.
Gen. con.	Gen. con.
Dat. com.	Dat. conaib̄.

Ḑia, God, masc.

Nom. Ḑia.	Nom. Ḑée, Ḑéite.
Gen. Ḑé.	Gen. Ḑia, Ḑéiteaḑ.
Dat. Ḑia.	Dat. Ḑéib̄ Ḑéiteib̄.
Voc. a Ḑhé or a Ḑhia.	Voc. a Ḑhée, Ḑhéite.

Lá, a day, masc.

Nom. lá.	Nom. laeete.
Gen. lae.	Gen. laeeteaḑ, lá.
Dat. lá, ló.	Dat. laeetiḑ.

Mí, a month, fem.

Nom. mí.	Nom. míora.
Gen. mír, míora.	Gen. míor.
Dat. mí, mír.	Dat. míoraib̄.

O or ua, a grandson, masc.

Nom. ó, ua.	Nom. uf.
Gen. í, uf.	Gen. ua.
Dat. o, ua.	Dat. íb̄, uib̄.
Voc. a, uf.	Voc. a, uf.

DECLENSION OF THE ARTICLE
WITH THE NOUN.

1. The initial changes produced by the article in the nouns to which it is prefixed have been set forth at page 17; these changes must be carefully observed in declining nouns with the article.

2. Twelve typical examples are here given, corresponding with the several cases mentioned in paragraphs 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6, pages 17, 18; and these examples include almost every possible variety. There is a good deal of difference of usage in the dative singular of nouns beginning with *p*.

3. The declension of the singular number only is given; the changes in the plural are so very simple (see page 18), that they can present no difficulty.

4. Colg, a sword, masc. Nom. an colg; gen. an éuilg; dat. leip an g-colg (Par. 4, p. 17), or do'n colg (Par. 5, p. 18).

5. Cailleac, a hag, fem. Nom. an cailleac; na caillige; dat. ó'n g-caillig or do'n caillig.

6. Saozal, the world, masc. Nom. an raozal; gen. an τ-raozail; dat. ó'n raozal or do'n τ-raozail (Par 5, p. 18).

7. Sabóid, the Sabbath, fem. Nom. an τ-Sabóid; gen. na Sabóide; dat. ó'n Sabóid or do'n τ-Sabóid (Pars. 2 and 5, pp. 17 and 18.)

8. Slat, a rod, fem. Nom. an τ-plat; gen. na plaité; dat. leip an plait or do'n τ-plait.

9. Spól, satin, masc. Nom. an rpol; gen. an τ-rpól; dat. ó'n rpol or do'n τ-rpól.

10. Apal, an ass, masc. Nom. an τ-apal; gen. an apail; dat. ó'n apal.

11. Inip, an island, fem. Nom. an inip; gen. na h-inipe; dat. do'n inip.

12. Leac, a stone, fem. Nom. an leac; gen. na leice; dat. do'n leic (Par. 6, p. 18).

13. Óile, a deluge, fem. Nom. an óile; gen. na óileann; dat. do'n óilinn.

14. Sgeul, a story, masc. Nom. an rgeul; gen. an rgeíl; dat. ó'n rgeul.

15. Speal, a scythe, fem. Nom. an rpeal; gen. na rpeile; dat. leip an rpeil.

CHAPTER III.

THE ADJECTIVE.

I. DECLENSION OF ADJECTIVES.

1. In Irish the adjective changes its form according to the gender, case, and number of the noun.

2. Adjectives are declined in much the same manner as nouns; but they never take the inflection *ib* in the dative plural (though anciently they had this inflection like nouns): the dative plural of an adjective is like the nominative plural.

3. There are usually reckoned four declensions of adjectives.

4. The inflections of these four declensions follow those of the noun so closely, that when the noun is mastered the adjective presents no difficulty.

FIRST DECLENSION.

1. Adjectives of the first declension are those that end in a consonant preceded by a broad vowel, as *bán*, white; *pluóc*, wet.

2. In the masculine gender (i.e., when the adjective belongs to a masculine noun), they are declined the same as nouns of the first declension of the type of *ball*, except that the nominative plural always ends in *a*.

3. In the feminine gender adjectives are declined the same as nouns of the second declension of the type of *peampóg*.

4. Both genders are alike in the plural. Example, *bán*, white.

Singular.		Plural.
Masc.	Fem.	Masc. and Fem.
Nom.	bán. bán.	Nom. báná.
Gen.	bán. báné.	Gen. bán.
Dat.	bán. bán.	Dat. báná.
Voc.	bán. bán.	Voc. báná.

SECOND DECLENSION.

1. Adjectives of the second declension are those that end in a consonant preceded by a slender vowel.

2. In the singular, all the cases of both masculine and feminine are alike, except the genitive feminine, which takes *e*.

3. In the plural, both genders are alike, and all the cases except the genitive are formed by adding *e*; the genitive is like the nominative singular. Example, *mín*, smooth, fine.

Singular.		Plural.
Masc.	Fem.	Masc. and Fem.
Nom.	mín. mín.	Nom. míne.
Gen.	mín. míne.	Gen. mín.
Dat.	mín. mín.	Dat. míne.
Voc.	mín. mín.	Voc. míne.

THIRD DECLENSION.

1. Adjectives of the third declension are those that end in *ainá*, which has the same signification as the English postfix *like*:—*bean*, a woman *banainá*, womanlike, modest.

2. The two genders are always alike.

3. The four cases singular are alike except the genitive, which is formed by adding *a*, with a syncope.

4. In the plural, the genitive is the same as the nominative singular; and the other cases are the same as the genitive singular. Example, *maireainá*, graceful.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. maípeañal.	Nom. maípeañla.
Gen. maípeañla.	Gen. maípeañal.
Dat. maípeañal.	Dat. maípeañla.

FOURTH DECLENSION.

1. Adjectives of the fourth declension are those that end in vowels; as *mópōa*, majestic.

2. They have no inflections, being alike in all cases, numbers, and genders.

II. DECLENSION OF THE ADJECTIVE AND ARTICLE WITH THE NOUN.

1. The rules for the aspiration of the initial consonants of adjectives agreeing with nouns are given at p. 10; and these rules must be very carefully observed in declining nouns with adjectives.

2. It may be added here that *ð* and *τ* sometimes resist aspiration, especially if they follow a noun ending in *n*. There is much variety of usage as to aspiration of adjectives in the dative singular.

3. When a noun is declined with both an adjective and the article, the initial of the adjective is generally eclipsed in the genitive plural (or takes *n* if it be a vowel).

4. Four typical examples are here given of the declension of the adjective with the noun. For the influence of the article see p. 17.

An capall bán, *the white horse, masc.*

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. an capall bán.	na capaill bána.
Gen. an écapall bán.	na ḡ-capall m-bán.
Dat. ó'n ḡ-capall bán or m-bán.	ó'na capallaib bána
Voc. a écapall bán.	a écapalla bána.

Ἄν ψυρεός βεαῶ, *the little lark, fem.*

Nom. ἄν ψυρεός βεαῶ.	να ψυρεόῃα βεαῶα.
Gen. να ψυρεοίῃε βιῃε.	να β-ψυρεός μ-βεαῶ.
Dat. δ'ἡ β-ψυρεοίῃ βιῃ.	δ'ἡνα ψυρεοῃαῖβ βεαῶα.
Voc. α ψυρεός βεαῶ.	α ψυρεόῃα βεαῶα.

Ἄν ἐνός ἀρῶ, *the high hill, masc.*

Nom. ἄν ἐνός ἀρῶ.	Nom. να ἐνωίε ἀρῶα.
Gen. ἀν ἐνωίε ἀρῶ.	Gen. να ῥ-ἐνός η-ἀρῶ.
Dat. ο'ἡ ῥ-ἐνός ἀρῶ.	Dat. δ'ἡνα ἐνωαῖβ ἀρῶα.
Voc. α ἐνωίε ἀρῶ.	Voc. α ἐνωα ἀρῶα.

Ἄν βῶ θυῖ, *the black cow, fem.*

Nom. ἄν βῶ θυῖ.	Nom. να βά θυῖα.
Gen. να βῶ θυῖε.	Gen. να μ-βῶ η-θυῖ.
Dat. δο'ἡ μ-θυῖν θυῖ.	Dat. δο να βῶαῖβ θυῖα.
Voc. α βῶ θυῖ.	Voc. α βῶα θυῖα.

III. COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

1. Irish adjectives have three degrees of comparison, the same as English adjectives.

2. The positive is the simple form of the adjective; as ἀρῶ, high; πραιτεαῖαῖ, princely.

3. The comparative and the superlative have the same form, which is that of the genitive singular feminine; as ἀρῶε, πραιτεαῖα; and they are distinguished by prefixed particles, or by the context.

4. The comparative has generally the particle νῖος (or νῖορα or νῖρα) prefixed, and it is usually followed by νά, than (spelled also ἰνά and ἰονά); as τά ἄν τεαῖ ῖο νῖος ἀρῶε νά ἄν τεαῖ ῖν,

this house is higher than that house : ἀτά an laoc̄ úo níop̄ plait̄eamla ná an píḡ péin, “yonder champion is more princely than the king himself.”

5. The superlative is often preceded by ἢ or ἀν, with the article expressed before the noun ; as an péap̄ ἢ plait̄eamla pan̄ típ̄, the most princely man in the country.

6. In the comparative, níop̄ is omitted when the assertion or question is made by the verb ἢ in any of its forms, expressed or understood ; as βᾱ ðuibē a ḡpuaḡ ná an ḡual, “her hair was blacker than the coal ;” ἢ ḡilē pneact̄a ná bainnē, snow is whiter than milk ; ἀν̄ πέάρ̄p̄ ðō ðeap̄bpaçap̄ ná̄ túpā ? is thy brother better than thou ?

7. When the characteristic particles are not expressed, the construction generally determines whether the adjective is comparative or superlative ; as an ealaðan̄ ἢ uap̄lē ná̄ píliðeaçt̄, the art which is nobler than poetry ; an ealaðan̄ ἢ uap̄lē aip̄ bíçt̄, “the art which is the noblest in the world.”

8. An adjective in the comparative or superlative is not inflected ; all the cases being alike in form.

IRREGULAR COMPARISON.

1. The following adjectives are irregularly compared. There are a few others, but their departure from rule is so slight as not to require notice.

2. *λία* is a comparative as it stands, signifying more (in number) ; but it has no positive, unless *ἰομόα* or *μόρᾶν* (many), or some such word, be considered as such.

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
beaḡ, little.	n̄for luḡa.	ip̄ luḡa.
ḡaḡa, long.	n̄for ḡaḡe, n̄for ḡa.	ip̄ ḡaḡe, ip̄ ḡa.
ḡurur̄ or urur̄, easy.	n̄for ḡura, n̄for ura.	ip̄ ḡura, ip̄ ura.
maiḡ, } ḡeaḡ, } good.	n̄for ḡeárr̄.	ip̄ ḡeárr̄.
m̄m̄ic, often.	n̄for m̄m̄onca.	
m̄ór, great.	n̄for m̄ó.	ip̄ m̄ó.
olc, bad.	n̄for meara.	ip̄ meara.
teic̄, hot.	n̄for teó.	ip̄ teó.

3. There are certain particles which, when prefixed to adjectives, intensify their signification; and in accordance with the rule in Par. 4, page 10, they aspirate the initials of the adjectives.

4. The principal of these are an, ḡíor, ḡó, ḡár, úr: as maiḡ, good; an-m̄maiḡ, very good; ḡr̄anna, ugly; ḡíor-ḡr̄anna, excessively ugly; m̄ór, large; ḡó-m̄ór, very large; láib̄ir, strong; ḡár-láib̄ir, very strong, &c.

IV. NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

1. The following is a list of the most important of the numerals, both cardinal and ordinal.

For the influence of some of them in aspirating and eclipsing, and for other syntactical influences on the noun, see Syntax.

Cardinal.	Ordinal.
1. aon.	1st. óeas̄.
2. ḡó, ḡá.	2nd. ḡara.
3. trí, teópa.	3rd. treap̄.
4. ceac̄ap̄, ceic̄pe.	4th. ceac̄ep̄maḡ.
5. cúḡ.	5th. cúḡeas̄.
6. ḡé.	6th. ḡeipeas̄.
7. ḡeac̄t̄.	7th. ḡeac̄t̄maḡ.
8. oóc̄.	8th. oóc̄t̄maḡ.
9. naoi.	9th. naoimaḡ.
10. deic̄.	10th. deac̄t̄maḡ.
11. aon deaḡ.	11th. aonimaḡ deaḡ.

12.	ὄ δέαζ, δά δέαζ.	12th.	ὄαρα δέαζ.
13.	ἐπί δέαζ. And so on, up to and including 19.	13th.	ἐπεαρ δέαζ.
20.	πίε.	20th.	πίεαδ.
21.	{ αὐν ἀ'ρ πίε, αὐν αἶρ πίεῖν, And so on, up to 29.	21st.	{ αὐνῆαδ αἶρ πίεῖν.
30.	{ ἐπιόαδ, ἐπιόα, δειό ἀ'ρ πίε.	30th.	{ ἐπιόαδαδ, δεακῆαδ αἶρ πίεῖν.
33.	{ ἐπί αἶρ ἐπιόαδ, ἐπί δέαζ ἀ'ρ πίε.	33rd.	{ ἐπεαρ αἶρ ἐπιό- αδ, ἐπεαρ δέαζ αἶρ πίεῖν.
40.	{ δά πίεῖν, σεαῖ- ραδα, σεαῖρα- αδ.	40th.	σεαῖραδαδαδ.
50.	σαοζα, σαοζαδ.	50th.	σαοζαδαδ.
60.	{ πεαρζαδ, πεαρζα, ἐπί πίεῖν.	60th.	{ πεαρζαδαδ, ἐπί πίεῖν δεαδ.
70.	{ πεακτιμοζα, πεακτι- μοζαδ, δειό ἀ'ρ ἐπί πίεῖν.	70th.	{ πεακτιμοζαδαδ, δεακῆαδ αἶρ ἐπί πίεῖν.
80.	{ οκτιμοζα, οκτι- μοζαδ, σεῖτερε πίεῖν.	80th.	{ οκτιμοζαδαδ, σεῖτερε πίεῖν- εαδ.
90.	{ νοα, νοαδ, δειό ἀ'ρ σεῖτερε πίεῖν	90th.	{ νοαδαδ, δεακῆ- αδ αἶρ σεῖτε- ρε πίεῖν.
100.	κέαδ.	100th.	κέαδαδ.
1,000.	μίλε.	1,000th.	μίλεαδ.
2,000.	δά ἡμίλε.	2,000th.	δά ἡμίλεαδ.
1,000,000.	μυλλίον.	1,000,000th.	μυλλίοναδ.

2. Ὅδ and σεαῖρα are used only in the absence of nouns, i.e. merely as the names of the numbers; but δά and σεῖτερε are always used when the nouns are expressed; as δά ἐλουρα, two ears; σεῖτερε ἄνθρωποι, four men.

3. Πίε is declined:—Nom πίε; gen. πίεαδ; dat. πίεῖν; nom. plur. πίεῖν.

4. Κέαδ has gen. κείν; nom. pl. κέαδα or κέαδτα.

5. The following nouns, which are all except

beipt, formed from the numerals, are applied to persons only :—

ḍiarp, ḍír, two persons.	ḡeaótar,	} seven persons.
beipt, a couple.	mór-ḡeiptear,	
ḡriúr, three persons.	oótar,	eight "
ceaótar, four "	nonḍar, naonḍar,	nine "
cúḡear, five "	ḍeíóneabar,	ten "
ḡeiptear, six "		

CHAPTER IV.

THE PRONOUN.

1. There are in Irish six kinds of pronouns :— Personal, Possessive, Relative, Demonstrative, Interrogative, and Indefinite.

I. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

1. There are four personal pronouns—mé, I; tú, thou; ḡé, he; ḡí, she; with their plurals, ḡinn, we; ḡib, ye or you; and ḡiab, they. These are the simple forms of the personal pronouns.

2. Each of these takes an emphatic increase or postfixed syllable, equivalent to the English word *self*; and the whole word thus formed is called the emphatic form. The emphatic syllables vary their vowel part in accordance with the rule caol le caol &c.

3. The following are the emphatic forms :—
 Mḡe or meḡi, myself; túḡa, thyself; ḡeiptear.

himself; *ripe*, herself; *rinne*, ourselves; *riðre*, yourselves; *riðpan*, themselves.

4. The word *féin*, self, is often added to the personal pronouns, not as a particle but as a separate word; and it is still more emphatic than the particles mentioned in last paragraph:—*mé féin*, I myself; *rí féin*, she herself.

5. The personal pronouns are all declined; and they may carry the emphatic increase through all the cases.

6. The personal pronouns (except *mé*), unlike nouns, have a distinct form for the accusative (or objective) case. It is, of course, only the pronoun *tu* that is used in the vocative.

DECLENSION OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

The declension of the emphatic form of *mé* is given as an example: observe, in this, the vowel changes in obedience to *caol le caol* &c.

mé, I.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. <i>mé</i> , I.	Nom. <i>rinne</i> , we.
Gen. <i>mo</i> , mine.	Gen. <i>ár</i> , our.
Dat. <i>dom</i> , <i>daím</i> , to me.	Dat. <i>dúinn</i> , to us.
Acc. <i>mé</i> , me.	Acc. <i>inn</i> or <i>rinne</i> , us.

Mipe, myself (*emphatic form*).

Nom. <i>mipe</i> , <i>meiri</i> , myself.	Nom. <i>rinne</i> , ourselves.
Gen. <i>mo-ra</i> , my own.	Gen. <i>ár-ne</i> , our own.
Dat. <i>dompa</i> , <i>daímpa</i> , to myself.	Dat. <i>dúinne</i> , to ourselves.
Acc. <i>mipe</i> , <i>meiri</i> , myself.	Acc. <i>inne</i> , <i>rinne</i> , ourselves.

Tú, thou.

Nom. <i>tu</i> .	Nom. <i>rið</i> .
Gen. <i>do</i> .	Gen. <i>þur</i> , <i>þar</i> .
Dat. <i>duit</i> .	Dat. <i>ðauð</i> , <i>ðíð</i> .
Acc. <i>tu</i> .	Acc. <i>rið</i> , <i>rið</i> .
Voc. <i>tu</i> .	Voc. <i>rið</i> , <i>rið</i> .

Sé, *he*.

Nom. ré.	Nom. ριαð.
Gen. α.	Gen. α.
Dat. ðο.	Dat. ðόιβ̄.
Acc. é.	Acc. ιαð.

Sí, *she*.

Nom. ρί.	Nom. ριαð.
Gen. α.	Gen. α.
Dat. ðι.	Dat. ðόιβ̄.
Acc. í.	Acc. ιαð.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS COMPOUNDED WITH
PREPOSITIONS.

1. In Irish, the personal and the possessive pronouns unite with prepositions, each compound forming a single word.

2. In each case the preposition and the pronoun are amalgamated, and the latter changes its form, so as to be considerably, and in some cases completely, disguised.

3. These “prepositional pronouns,” as they are sometimes called, are of constant occurrence in the language—scarce a sentence in which they are not met with: they are therefore of great importance, and the learner should get them all off by heart.

4. The following prepositions unite with personal pronouns:—*āg*; *aip* or *ap*; *ann* or *ι*; *ap*; *ám*; *de*; *do*; *eioip* or *ioip*; *pā* or *paoi*; *le*; *o* or *ua*; *poim̄*; *peac̄*; *tap*; *tré*; *uar*; *um* or *im*.

5. The following are the combinations of these prepositions with the personal pronouns.

6. The emphatic particles may be used with these combinations also, as well as with the uncompounded pronouns, of which one example is given.

Αἶ, *at or with.*

Singular.

Plural.

αἶαμ, with or at me.
 αἶατ, αἶαδ, with thee.
 αἶαε, with him.
 αἶαε or αἶαι, with her.

αἶαμν, with us.
 αἶαιβ, with you.
 αἶα or αἶυ, with them.

The same with the emphatic increase.

αἶαμπα, with myself.
 αἶατρα, with thyself.
 αἶαρεαν, with himself.
 αἶαρε, with herself.

αἶαμνε, with ourselves.
 αἶαιβρε, with yourselves.
 αἶαραν, with themselves.

Αἰρ or αρ, *upon.*

ορμ, on me.
 ορτ, on thee.
 αρ, on him.
 υρρε, on her.

ορραμν, on us.
 ορραιβ, on you.
 ορρα, ορτα, on them.

Αἰν or ι, *in.*

ιονναμ, in me.
 ιοννατ, ιονναδ, in thee.
 αἰν, in him.
 ιννε, ιννει, in her.

ιονναμν, ιονναμν, in us.
 ιονναιβ, in you.
 ιονντα, in them.

Αἰρ, *out of.*

αραμ, out of me.
 αρατ, αραδ, out of thee.
 αρ, out of him.
 αιρε, αιρει, out of her.

αραμν, out of us.
 αραιβ, out of you.
 αρτα, αρτυ, out of them.

Ἐ, *towards, unto.*

εἶαμ, unto me.
 εἶατ, unto thee.
 εἶαε, unto him.
 εἶαει, unto her.

εἶαμν, unto us.
 εἶαιβ, unto you.
 εἶαυ, unto them.

Ἐ, *from or off.*

οἶομ, off or of me.
 οἶοτ, off thee.
 οἶε, off him.
 οἶ, off her.

οἶμν, off us.
 οἶιβ, off you.
 οἶοβ, off them.

Ὅο, *to.*

ὄαμ, ὄομ, ὄαῆ, to me.
 ὄυῖτ, to thee.
 ὄο, to him.
 ὄι, to her.

ὄύμν, to us.
 ὄαοῖβ, ὄῖβ, to you.
 ὄόῖβ, to them.

Εἰδιρ, *between.*

εἰδιράμ, between me.
 εἰδιράτ, between thee.
 εἰδιρ ἑ, between him.
 εἰδιρ ἱ, between her.

εἰδιράμν, between us.
 εἰδιραῖβ, between you.
 εἰδιρρα, between them.

Ῥά or Ῥαοι, *under.*

Ῥύμ, under me.
 Ῥύτ, under thee.
 Ῥαοι, under him.
 Ῥύτε, under her.

Ῥύμν, under us.
 Ῥύῖβ, under you.
 Ῥύτα, under them.

Ἔε, *with.*

Ἔομ, with me.
 Ἔετ, with thee.
 Ἔειρ, with him.
 Ἔίτε, ἰεί, with her.

Ἔνν, with us.
 Ἔῖβ, with you.
 Ἔό, with them.

Ἔε is often written πε in books, and its pronominal combinations in this form are often met with. They are as follows:—

Ῥιομ, with me.
 Ῥιοτ, with thee.
 Ῥιρ, with him.
 Ῥια, with her.

Ῥιμν, with us.
 Ῥῖβ, with you.
 Ῥιυ, with them.

Ο or υα, *from.*

υαμ, from me.
 υατ, from thee.
 υαῶ, from him.
 υαίτε, υαίτι, from her.

υαμν, from us.
 υαῖβ, from you.
 υατα, from them.

Ῥομῆ, *before.*

Ῥόμῆαμ, before me.
 Ῥόμῆατ, before thee.
 Ῥόμῆε, before him.
 Ῥόμπε, Ῥόμρι, before her.

Ῥόμῆαμν, before us.
 Ῥόμῆαῖβ, before you.
 Ῥόμπα, before them.

Seac̄, *beside*.

peac̄am, beside me.
 peac̄ac̄, beside thee.
 peac̄ é, beside him.
 peac̄ í, beside her.

peac̄amn, beside us.
 peac̄aib̄, beside you.
 peac̄a, beside them.

Tap, *beyond, over*.

éopm, éapm, over me.
 éopc̄, éapc̄, over thee.
 éaip̄, over him.
 éaip̄ce, éaip̄i, over her.

éoppamn, éappamn, over us.
 éoppaib̄, éappaib̄, over you.
 éappca, éappa, over them.

Tpe, *through*.

cp̄iom, through me.
 cp̄ioct̄, through thee.
 cp̄ib̄, through him.
 cp̄īce, cp̄īi, through her.

cp̄inn, through us.
 cp̄ib̄, through you.
 cp̄iōca, through them.

Uap, *above*.

uapam, above me.
 uapac̄, above thee.
 uapa, above him.
 uap̄ce, uap̄ci, above her.

uapamn, above us.
 uapaib̄, above you.
 uapca, above them.

Um or im, *about*.

umam, about me.
 umac̄, about thee.
 ume, about him.
 umpe, umpi, about her.

umamn, about us.
 umaib̄, about you.
 umpa, about them.

II. POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

1. The possessive pronouns, which are merely the genitives of the personal pronouns, are as follows:—mo, my; ðo, thy; a, his or her; áp, our; ðap or ðup, your; a, their. The three possessives, a, his, a, her, and a, their, are distinguished by the initial letter changes of the next word. (See pp. 9, 11, 12; and see also Syntax.)

2. The *o* of *mo* and *do* is omitted before a vowel or before *ρ*; as *m'αταιρ*, my father; *m'ρεαρann*, my land. And *do* is often changed, before a vowel, to *τ*, *ε*, and *h*; as *τ'αταιρ*, *ε'αταιρ*, or *h-αταιρ*, thy father.

3. The possessive pronouns also take the emphatic increase, with this peculiarity, however, that the emphatic particle always follows the noun that comes after the possessive, or if the noun be qualified by one or more adjectives, the emphatic particle comes last of all; and in accordance with the rule *caol le caol*, its vowel is generally broad or slender according as the last vowel of the word it follows is broad or slender; as *mo εταε-ρα*, my house, or my own house; *mo εταε μοπ̄ buiθε-ρι*, my great yellow house. And these again may be followed by *ρε̄in* (Par. 4, p. 40), rendering the expression still more emphatic; as *mo εταε-ρα ρε̄in*, my own house.

POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS COMPOUNDED WITH
PREPOSITIONS.

1. The possessive pronouns are amalgamated with prepositions, much in the same way as the personal pronouns; as *beip beannaετ̄ om̄ ε̄ροιθε*, bear a blessing *from my* heart.

2. The following are the most important of these combinations:—

Ann, in.

Singular.	Plural.
<i>am, am', in my.</i>	<i>μαρ, 'ναρ, in our.</i>
<i>αθ, αθ', in thy.</i>	—
<i>iona, ma, 'na, in his or her.</i>	<i>iona, ma, 'na, in their.</i>

Do, to.

<i>dom, dom', to my.</i>	<i>δαρ, δ'αρ, to our.</i>
<i>δοθ, δοθ', to thy.</i>	—
<i>δα, da, to his or her.</i>	<i>δα, δ'a, to their.</i>

le, with.

lem, lem', with my.

lep, le'p, with our

leò, leò', with thy.

lena, le n-a, with his or her. lena, le n-a, with their.

O or ua from.

óm, óm', from my.

oár, ó'p, from our.

óò, óò', from thy.

óna, ó n-a, from his or her. óna, o n-a, from their.

3. Those that are identical in form and different in meaning are distinguished by the initial letter changes they produce in the next word; as óna tíg, from his house; óna tíg, from her house; óna ð-tíg, from their house:

4. These combinations can also take the emphatic increase, like those of the personal pronouns, with the peculiarity, however, noticed in Par. 3, p. 45; as óm tíg mór árð-ra, from my great high house.

III. RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. There are three relative pronouns in Irish:—
 a, who, which, that; noè, who, which, that; naè, which not; as an té a buairear, the person who strikes; an laig noè a ðeip go b-puil tú plán, the physician that says that you are well; an té naè b-puil láidir, ní fuáir ðó beiré glie, “the person who is not strong, it is necessary for him to be wise.”

2. Óa sometimes takes the place of the relative a; and in some grammars it is counted as a distinct relative pronoun; as táid na gaolta ip feápp aum dá b-puil a ð-talam Epeann, “I have

the best friends *that are* (to be found) in the land of Erin." And sometimes *οο* stands for the relative *α*.

3. The relative *α* has sometimes the sense of "all which" or "all that;" as *βεῖρ βεανναῶτ ἐμ α μαρεαννδεῖριολραιὸ ἰρ'α'ρ Εἰβῖρ*, "bear a blessing to *all that* live of the seed of *Ir* and *Eber*;" *α ὅ-φυλ ραν ταλαῖν ὀ'αιμε Μῆαινε*, "*all that* are in the land of the tribe of *Máinè*."

4. The relative pronouns are not declined.

IV. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. The demonstrative pronouns are *ρο*, this, these; *ριν*, that, those; *ρῦδ* or *ύδ*, yonder: as *αν ρεαρ ρο*, this man; *να μνά ριν*, those women; *ρῦδ ἰ ρίορ*, "yonder she (moves) below."

V. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. There are usually reckoned three interrogative pronouns:—*αια* or *κέ*, who? *κά*, what? where? *καδ* or *ερευδ*, what? as *αια ἐρυτῦιγ ἐύ?* who created thee? *καδ δεῖρ τύ?* what sayest thou? *α ὅ-φυλ αν ρεαρ ριν?* where is that man? *ερευδ ἱρ εἰγιν?* what is necessary?

VI. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

1. The following are the principal indefinite pronouns:—

αον, one.

εἰγιν, some, certain.

εἰλε, *οἰλε*, other.

κάκ, all.

ῖακ, each, every.

ῖακ οἰλε, every.

εαῶταρ, either.

οἰλε, all.

α ἐεἰλε, each other.

αν τεέ, *αν τι*, the person who.

αια β'έ, *αιβέ*, *ῖαιβέ*, whoever.

2. The indefinite pronouns are not declined ; except *cáic*, which has a genitive form, *cáic* ; and *ḡac*, which is sometimes made *ḡaca* in the genitive.

CHAPTER V.

THE VERB.

1. Irish verbs are inflected for number, person, mood, tense, and voice.

2. The conjugation is arranged, not according to the initial changes, but according to terminations.

3. As to the initial changes:—see pages 10 and 58 for the particles that aspirate, and page 12 for the particles that eclipse, the initials of verbs.

I. PERSONS: SYNTHETIC AND ANALYTIC FORMS.

1. The verb has three persons singular and three persons plural ; and it has inflections for the whole six in the indicative and conditional moods of the active voice, except in one tense of the indicative.

2. The six forms of the present tense, indicative mood, active voice, of the verb *tóḡ*, take, are as follows:—

Singular.	Plural.
1. <i>tóḡaim</i> , I take.	1. <i>tóḡamaoib</i> , we take.
2. <i>tóḡair</i> , thou takest.	2. <i>tóḡcaoi</i> , ye take.
3. <i>tóḡaib ré</i> , he takes.	3. <i>tóḡaib</i> , they take.

3. This is what is called the synthetic form of the verb. The synthetic form is that in which the persons are expressed by inflections or terminations.

4. These six forms express the sense perfectly, without the accompaniment of the pronouns (except in the case of the third person singular): that is, $\tau\acute{o}\zeta\alpha\iota\tau$, as it stands, without using along with it the pronoun $\tau\acute{\upsilon}$, thou, expresses perfectly "thou takest;" and so of the others.

5. But there is another way of expressing the persons, singular and plural, namely, by using one form of the verb for the whole six, and putting in the pronouns to distinguish the persons and numbers. This is what is called the analytic form of the verb.

6. In this analytic mode of expressing the persons and numbers, the form of the verb that is used is the same as the form for the third person singular; and the persons singular and plural are expressed as follows:—

Singular.	Plural.
1. $\tau\acute{o}\zeta\alpha\iota\delta$ $\mu\acute{\epsilon}$, I take.	1. $\tau\acute{o}\zeta\alpha\iota\delta$ $\rho\iota\tau\tau\eta$ we take.
2. $\tau\acute{o}\zeta\alpha\iota\delta$ $\tau\acute{\upsilon}$, thou takest.	2. $\tau\acute{o}\zeta\alpha\iota\delta$ $\rho\iota\delta$, ye take.
3. $\tau\acute{o}\zeta\alpha\iota\delta$ $\rho\acute{\epsilon}$, he takes.	3. $\tau\acute{o}\zeta\alpha\iota\delta$ $\rho\iota\alpha\delta$, they take.

7. The third singular of the verb is not a synthetic form like the other five, that is, it does not include the pronoun as they do. In the third person singular, therefore, the pronoun must be always expressed in order to distinguish the number and person; unless there is a noun, or that the nominative is in some other way obvious from the construction.

8. But generally speaking it is not allowable to express any other pronoun along with the corresponding synthetic form of the verb:—For

example, it would be wrong to say *déanam mé* or *déanamais pinn*, both expressions being tautological.

9. This rule, in the case of the third person plural, however, is sometimes not observed; for such expressions as *molaib ríab* and *molaib ríab*—they praise, they will praise—are often met with, though *molaib* or *molaib* alone would answer. And a like construction (in the third plural) is often used when the nominative is a plural noun, both in the present and in the past tense; as *triallaib mic Mhíleaö*, “the sons of Milè go;” *map do éconadap na druidé*, “when the druids saw.”

10. The emphatic particles may be postfixed to all the persons of verbs, in the same manner as to pronouns and nouns (p. 39); as *molaím-pe*, I praise; *molaíṽ-pe*, thou praisest. And in all such cases, the word *pém* (p. 40) may be used to make the expression still more emphatic; as *do éuippinn-pe péim mo leanb a éodlaö*, “I myself would put my child to sleep.”

11. The general tendency of modern languages is to drop synthetic forms, and to become more analytic. The English language, for example, has lost nearly all its inflections, and supplied their place by prepositions, conjunctions, adverbs, and auxiliary verbs. Following this tendency, the synthetic forms of the Irish verb are falling into disuse in the spoken language; and it has been already remarked (p. 23) that the noun-inflection *ib* is now seldom used in speaking. But all these forms are quite common in even the most modern Irish books; and the learner must, therefore, make himself quite familiar with them.

II. TENSES.

1. In English a regular verb has only two different forms to express tense:—I love, I loved;

all the other tenses are expressed by means of auxiliaries.

2. In Irish, a regular verb has five different forms in the indicative mood for tense. Reckoning those tenses only which are expressed by inflection, an Irish regular verb has therefore FIVE TENSES in the indicative mood.

3. The five tenses with the synthetic forms for the first person singular of the regular verb *ḡoir*, call, are:—

(1.) The present; *ḡoirim*, I call.

(2.) The consuetudinal or habitual present; *ḡoirpeann mé*, I am in the habit of calling.

(3.) The past, or simple past, or perfect (for it is known by all these three names); *ḡoirpear*, I called.

(4.) The consuetudinal or habitual past; *ḡoirinn*, I used to call, or I used to be calling.

(5.) The future; *ḡoirpeadh*, I shall or will call.

III. MOODS AND VOICES.

1. The Irish regular verb has four moods:—The Imperative, the Indicative, the Conditional, and the Infinitive. These are the only moods for which the regular verb has distinct inflections.

2. There are, indeed, other moods, which are expressed, not by inflection, but by means of certain conjunctions and particles set before the verb; and these additional moods are given in conjugation in some Irish grammars; but as their forms do not differ from the forms of the four given in the last paragraph, they are not included here.

3. It is only the indicative mood of the verb that has tense inflection; in each of the other moods there is only one tense.

4. There are two voices, the active and the passive. It is only in the active voice that there are personal inflections; in the passive voice, the three persons singular and the three persons plural have all six the same form, rendering it necessary, of course, that the pronoun be always expressed when there is no noun.

IV. CONJUGATION OF A REGULAR VERB.

buail, *strike*.

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|----------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. | 1. buailmís, let us strike. |
| 2. buail, strike thou. | 2. buailó, strike ye. |
| 3. buaileadh pé, let him strike. | 3. buailóis, let them strike. |

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|------------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. buaim, I strike. | 1. buaimís, we strike. |
| 2. buaile, thou striketh. | 2. buaile, ye strike. |
| 3. buaileadh pé, he strikes. | 3. buaile, they strike. |

(For the relative form of this tense, see p. 55.)

Consuetudinal or habitual Present.

buaileann mé, *I usually strike.*

(The same form for all persons and numbers.)

Past.

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1. <i>ḅuaileap</i> , I struck. | 1. <i>ḅuaileamap</i> , we struck. |
| 2. <i>ḅuailir</i> , thou struckest. | 2. <i>ḅuaileabap</i> , ye struck. |
| 3. <i>ḅuail ré</i> , he struck. | 3. <i>ḅuaileabap</i> , they struck. |

Old form of Past.

- | | |
|-------------------------|---|
| 1. <i>ḅuaileap</i> . | 1. <i>ḅuailream</i> or <i>ḅuailriom</i> |
| 2. <i>ḅuailir</i> . | 2. <i>ḅuaileabap</i> . |
| 3. <i>ḅuailearɕap</i> . | 3. <i>ḅuailread</i> , or <i>ḅuailirioð</i> ,
or <i>ḅuailreadap</i> . |

Consuetudinal Past

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. <i>ḅuailinn</i> , I used to strike. | 1. <i>ḅuailimír</i> , we used to strike. |
| 2. <i>ḅuailcéá</i> , thou usedst to strike. | 2. <i>ḅuailcí</i> , ye used to strike. |
| 3. <i>ḅuaileað ré</i> , he used to strike. | 3. <i>ḅuailidír</i> , they used to strike. |

Future.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. <i>ḅuailread</i> , I will strike. | 1. <i>ḅuailrimíð</i> , we will strike. |
| 2. <i>ḅuailirip</i> , thou wilt strike. | 2. <i>ḅuailiró</i> , ye will strike. |
| 3. <i>ḅuailirioð ré</i> , he will strike. | 3. <i>ḅuailiró</i> , they will strike. |

(*For the relative form of this tense, see p. 55.*)

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. <i>ḅuailrimn</i> , I would strike. | 1. <i>ḅuailrimír</i> , we would strike. |
| 2. <i>ḅuailreá</i> , thou wouldst strike. | 2. <i>ḅuailiró</i> , ye would strike. |
| 3. <i>ḅuailread ré</i> , he would strike. | 3. <i>ḅuailiridír</i> , they would strike. |

INF. MOOD. *ḅo bualað*, to strike. PART. *αḅ bualað*, striking.

PASSIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

(The same as the Indicative Present.)

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. buailteap mé, I am struck.
2. buailteap tú, thou art struck.
3. buailteap é, he is struck.

Plural.

1. buailteap pinn or inn, we are struck.
2. buailteap sib or ib, ye are struck.
3. buailteap iad, they are struck.

*Consuetudinal Present.**(Same as the Indicative Present.)**Past.*

- | | |
|------------------------------------|---|
| 1. buaileadh mé, I was struck. | 1. buaileadh pinn or inn, we were struck. |
| 2. buaileadh tú, thou wast struck. | 2. buaileadh sib or ib, ye were struck. |
| 3. buaileadh é, he was struck. | 3. buaileadh iad, they were struck. |

Consuetudinal Past.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. buailte mé, I used to be struck. | 1. buailte pinn or inn, we used to be struck. |
| 2. buailte tú, thou usedst to be struck. | 2. buailte sib or ib, ye used to be struck. |
| 3. buailte é, he used to be struck. | 3. buailte iad, they used to be struck. |

Future.

Singular.

1. *buaɪpeap mé*, I shall or will be struck.
2. *buaɪpeap éú*, thou shalt or wilt be struck.
3. *buaɪpeap é*, he shall or will be struck.

Plural.

1. *buaɪpeap ɪmn or mn*, we shall or will be struck.
2. *buaɪpeap ɪb or ɪb*, ye shall or will be struck.
3. *buaɪpeap ɪað*, they shall or will be struck.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. <i>buaɪpfoe mé</i> , I would be struck. | 1. <i>buaɪpfoe ɪmn or mn</i> , we would be struck. |
| 2. <i>buaɪpfoe éú</i> , thou wouldst be struck. | 2. <i>buaɪpfoe ɪb or ɪb</i> , ye would be struck. |
| 3. <i>buaɪpfoe é</i> , he would be struck. | 3. <i>buaɪpfoe ɪað</i> , they would be struck. |

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Do beic buaɪte, to be struck.

PARTICIPLE.

buaɪte, struck.

IV. RELATIVE FORM OF THE VERB.

1. Besides the forms given in the preceding conjugation, the verb has what is called a "relative form," i.e., a form used after a relative pronoun. In two of the tenses of the indicative mood, namely, the present and the future, the relative form has a distinct inflection, viz., *ap*, *ɪp*, *ear*, or *ɪop*.

2. For instance, "the person who calls," is translated, not by an *té a ɔoiɪö* (3rd sing. form), but by an *té a ɔoipeap*; and "he who will steal," is not an *té a ɔoiɪö* (3rd sing. form), but an *té a ɔoiɪpeap*. In other tenses and moods the

relative form is the same as that of the third person singular.

3. This form of the verb is often used even when its nominative is not a relative, but a noun or personal pronoun, to express the "historical present," i.e., the present tense used for the past; as *riapparaigeap Amurigin a h-ammm di*, "Amergin *asks* her name of her." (See for a further account of the historical present, p. 57.)

4. And not unfrequently the relative form is used as an ordinary present; as, *Ip m6p an t-iongna liompa, na6 d'Oirfn iappap Pionn mipe*, "It is a great wonder to me that it is not for Oisín Finn *seeks* (iappap) me."

V. FORMATION AND USES OF THE MOODS AND TENSES OF REGULAR VERBS.

1. The second person singular of the imperative mood, active voice, is the root or simplest form of the verb, from which all the other persons, moods, and tenses are formed directly, by affixing the various terminations.

2. Verbs which end in a consonant preceded by a slender vowel have all their inflections precisely like those of *buaíl* (with the exception mentioned in Par. 4, p. 60); and they all begin with a slender vowel (except sometimes that of the infinitive) in accordance with the rule *caol le caol* &c.

3. But when the final consonant is preceded by a broad vowel, the synthetic terminations begin with a broad vowel, in accordance with the same rule. A table of the full conjugation of a regular verb ending in a broad vowel is given at page. 64.

4. The root generally remains unchanged through all the variations of the verb, except that it occasionally suffers a trifling change in the infinitive. The cases in which the root suffers change in the infinitive are mentioned in Par. 4. p. 60: See also Par. 8, p. 63.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

1. The present tense is formed by affixing the six personal terminations *im* (or *aīm*), *ip* (or *aip*), &c., to the root.

2. The historical present, i.e., the present tense used for the past, or where past time is intended, is very common in Irish; indeed in many narrative and historical pieces it occurs quite as often as the ordinary past tense in relating past transactions; as, *Uala lé, iomoppo, ollmhuigéar long leip*, “as to Ith, indeed, a ship *is prepared* by him” (instead of *ollmhuigead*, *was prepared*).

3. It has been already remarked (Par. 3, p. 56), that the relative form of the verb is often used for the historical present; as *noctar Eiremón doib*, “Eremon reveals to them.”

Consuetudinal Past and Present.

1. These tenses express customary action; as *léigeann mé*, I am in the habit of reading; *léigead pé*, he used to read, or he was in the habit of reading.

2. In the sentences, “I write always after breakfast,” and “he sold bread in his youth,” the verbs “write” and “sold” are used in the same manner as the Irish consuetudinal tense; except, indeed, that the idea is not so distinctly marked by the English phrase as by the Irish.

3. One of the particles *do* or *po* is usually prefixed to the consuetudinal past; and the initial

consonant is generally aspirated; as *do* ḡoiriúir, they used to call.

4. The Irish peasantry seem to feel the want of these two tenses when they are speaking English; and they often, in fact, attempt to import them into the English language, even in districts where no Irish has been spoken for generations: thus they will say, "I do be reading while you do be writing;" "I used to be walking every day while I lived in the country," &c.

Past Tense.

1. In the past tense the initial consonant is aspirated in the active voice, but not in the passive voice.

2. With the exception of the aspiration, the third singular past tense is the same as the root.

3. One of the particles *do* or *po* is generally prefixed to the past tense in both voices; as *do* fíearap, I stood; *po* cúbair, thou sleepest; *do* molaö iad, they were praised; *po* buaicäó é, he was struck.

4. The particle *po*, used as a mark of the past tense, is often compounded with other particles, the *p* only being retained, but it still causes aspiration in the active voice, as if it were uncompounded.

5. The principal of these compounds are:—

(1.) *Ap*, whether? from *an* and *po*; as *ap* buail ré, did he strike?

(2.) *ḡup*, that, from *ḡo* and *po*; as *epiöim ḡup* buail ré, I believe that he struck.

(3.) *Munap*, unless, from *muna* and *po*; as *munap* buail ré, unless he struck.

(4.) *Naäap*, or *na'p*, or *náp*, whether not? from *naö* and *po*; as *náp* buail ré, did not he strike?

(5.) Níop, not, from níand po; as níop buail pé, he did not strike.*

6. The particle po, as a sign of past tense, is also often combined with the relative pronoun a; as an fear d'ap geallap mo leabap, the man to whom I promised my book. For a further account of this, see Syntax.

Future Tense.

1. All the personal inflections of this tense, in both voices, begin with the letter p, which, in the spoken language, is often sounded like h; thus dúnpad, I shall shut, is colloquially pronounced *doonhad* (instead of *doonfad*).

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

1. The particle do, causing aspiration, is often prefixed to verbs in the conditional mood; as do fíubalpáinn, I would walk.

2. But very often also dá, if, or muna, unless, is prefixed, and with these particles the initial is eclipsed; as dá b-pağáinn-pe mo poğa, "if I would get my choice;" muna m-beiðeað pé, "unless he would be."

3. It is important to note that the personal inflections of this mood in both voices, as well as those of the future indicative, all begin with p.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

1. The initial is aspirated in the infinitive, whether the particle do or a be expressed or under-

* See Second Irish Book by the Society for the Preservation of the Irish Language, p. 53.

stood. But in some cases the aspiration is prevented by other grammatical influences, as shown in next paragraph.

2. When the infinitive is preceded by one of the possessive pronouns, the initial of the verb falls under the influence of the pronoun.*

(1.) It is aspirated for *a*, his; *mo*, my; *do*, thy (but here the influence of the pronoun is not perceived, as there would be aspiration without it); as *ḃá ḡonaö*, to wound him (literally to his wounding, and so of the others); *ḃo m'ḡonaö*, to wound me; *ḃo ḃ'ḡonaö*, to wound thee.

(2.) It is preserved from aspiration by *a*, her; as *ḃá ḡonaö*, to wound her.

(3.) It is eclipsed by the three plural possessives; as *ḃár n-ḡonaö*, to wound us; *ḃo ḃup n-ḡonaö* to wound you; *ḃá n-ḡonaö*, to wound them.

3. The general way of forming the infinitive is by adding *aö* or *eaö*, the first when the last vowel of the root is broad; the second when the vowel is slender.

4. If the final consonant of the root be preceded by *i* as part of a diphthong or triphthong, the final vowel is made broad in the infinitive (which is usually, but not always, done by dropping the *i*); as *buaíl*, *buaícaö*; *ḡoin*, *ḡonaö*, to wound. But if the final consonant be preceded by *i* alone, the infinitive is formed according to the general rule in the last paragraph; as *mill*, *mil-leaö*, to destroy.

5. The infinitives of many verbs are formed irregularly, and these must be learned by prac-

* For the influence of the possessive pronouns, see pages 9, 11, 12; and see also Syntax.

tice. The following are a few of such verbs. Each group exhibits a particular type, in which the manner of forming the infinitive will be obvious on inspection.

Root or Imperative.	Infinitive.
έαῖ.	ὑ'έαῖ, to die.
ῖνάῖ.	ὑο ῖνάῖ, to swim.
όλ.	ὑ'όλ, to drink.
ταρραῖ.	ὑο ταρραῖ, to draw.
κυρ.	ὑο κύρ, to put.
ῖοιλ.	ὑο ῖόιλ, to weep.
ῖοιρ.	ὑ'ῖοιρτ, to play.
ῖοῖιλ.	ὑ'ῖοῖιλτ, to graze.
ὑίβιρ.	ὑο ὑίβιρτ, to banish.
κειλ.	ὑο κειλτ, to conceal.
ῖάῖ.	ὑ' ῖάῖβάλ, to leave.
ῖαῖ.	ὑο ῖαῖβάλ, to take.
τόῖ.	ὑο τόῖβάλ, to lift.
λεαν.	ὑο λεανῖαν, to follow.
καλλ.	ὑο κάλλεανῖαν, to lose.
οιλ.	ὑ'οιλεανῖαν, to nourish.
ῖοιλλ.	ὑ'ῖοιλλεανῖαν to suit.
ῖλυαρ.	ὑο ῖλυαραῖτ, to move.
εῖρτ.	ὑ'εῖρτεαῖτ, to listen.

THE PARTICIPLE.

1. The active participle is merely the infinitive mood, with some such particle as αῖ prefixed; as αῖ βυαλαῖ at beating or a-beating.

2. The passive participle is generally formed by adding τε or ῖτε when the last vowel of the root is slender, and τα or ῖτα, when broad.

When the root ends in ῖ, ὅ, λ, ῖλ, ν, ῖν, ρ, ῖ, or ῖ (except verbs in υῖῖ or ῖῖ), the τ of the participial termination retains its sound: after any other consonant, and also in verbs in υῖῖ or ῖῖ, the τ is aspirated. In the passive voice, the terminations ταρ and τῖ follow the same law.

VI. VERBS IN U1Ġ, &c.

1. Verbs of two or more syllables with the root ending in u1Ġ, or 1Ġ, and some other dissyllabic verbs ending in 1l, 1n, 1p, and 1r, differ so decidedly from the model verb in the formation of some of their moods and tenses, that some writers,* not without reason, class them as a second conjugation.

2. The difference lies in the formation of the future and of the conditional in both voices; the other moods and tenses are formed like those of bua1l.

3. In bua1l, and all other verbs of its kind, the letter p is a characteristic mark of the future and of the conditional mood in both voices, as stated in Par. 3, p. 59.

4. The verbs now under consideration have no p in the future and conditional, but they take instead, eó, before the final consonant of the root.

5. In addition to this change, verbs in u1Ġ and 1Ġ change Ġ into ċ; though in the spoken language of most parts of Ireland, the Ġ retains its place.

6. There is no other inflectional difference between these verbs and bua1l, the personal terminations following the final consonant of the root being the same in all cases.

7. In the other tenses of the indicative, verbs in 1l, 1n, 1p and 1r are almost always syncopated by the elision of the vowel or diphthong preceding the final root consonant, as co1a1l, sleep, co1lam,

* As for instance the Rev. Canon Bourke in his "College Irish Grammar."

I sleep, &c. (But this change is not regarded as grammatical inflection.)

8. Verbs in *uiġ* almost always form their infinitive by dropping the *i* and adding the usual termination *að*; those in *iġ* alone (not preceded by *u*), retain the *i* and take *u* after it in the infinitive: as *comarċuiġ*, mark; infinitive, *comarċuġað*; *comairliġ*, advise; infinitive, *comairliuġað*.

9. Sometimes there are other slight changes, caused chiefly by the rule *coal le caol* &c., which will be obvious on inspection.

10. The following are a few examples of the formation of the present and future indicative, and of the conditional mood, in such verbs. The first person singular only is given in each case, as the other persons have the same terminations as *buail* and *meall*.

Root or imper.	Pres. indic.	Future indic.	Conditional Mood.
<i>Ďiriġ</i> , direct.	<i>Ďiriġim.</i>	<i>Ďirneðað.</i>	<i>Ďirneðaimn.</i>
<i>Ďrādūiġ</i> , love.	<i>Ďrādūiġim.</i>	<i>Ďrāiðeðað.</i>	<i>Ďrāiðeðaimn.</i>
<i>labair</i> , speak.	<i>labraim.</i>	<i>laiðeðrað.</i>	<i>laiðeðraimn.</i>
<i>Ċarruiġ</i> , draw.	<i>ċairriġim.</i>	<i>ċairneðġað.</i>	<i>ċairneðġaimn.</i>
<i>fořġail</i> , open.	<i>fořġlaim.</i>	<i>foiriġeðlað.</i>	<i>foiriġeðlaimn.</i>
<i>Ċorain</i> , defend.	<i>ċoraim.</i>	<i>ċoirneðnað.</i>	<i>ċoirneðnaimn.</i>
<i>Inniř</i> , tell,	<i>inniřim.</i>	<i>inneðrað.</i>	<i>inneðraimn.</i>
<i>Ďiřiř</i> , banish.	<i>Ďiřiřim.</i>	<i>Ďiðeðrað.</i>	<i>Ďiðeðraimn.</i>

11. In Munster, verbs in *il*, *in*, *ir*, and *ir*, are conjugated like those in *uiġ* or *iġ*; and the *eð* comes *after* the final consonant: thus *Ďiřiř*, banish, is made in the future and conditional, *Ďiřiřeðġað* and *Ďiřiřeðġaimn*, as if the verb were *Ďiřiřiġ*.

12. A table of the full conjugation of a verb in *uiġ* (*árđuiġ*) is given at page 65.

SYNTHETIC CONJUGATION OF meall, deceive.

		ACTIVE VOICE.		PASSIVE VOICE.	
		SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Imperative Mood.	1. —		meall-amaoip		Same form as the Present Indicative.
	2. meall		meall-atò		
	3. meall-aò pé		m eall-atòip		
Pres. Tense.	1. meall-am		meall-amaoib		Same form as the Present.
	2. meall-ap		meall-cao		
	3. meall-aò pé		meall-atò		
Consuet. Present.	1. { meall- ann	{ mé éú é	{ pinn pib iaò		Same form as the Present.
	2. {	{	{		
	3. {	{	{		
Simple Past.	1. ñeall-ap		ñeall-amaip		Same form as the Present.
	2. ñeall-ap		ñeall-abap		
	3. ñeall pé		ñeall-abap		
Consuet. Past.	1. ñeall-ann		ñeall-amaoip		Same form as the Present.
	2. ñeall-tá		ñeall-cao		
	3. ñeall-aò pé		ñeall-atòip		
Future.	1. meall-paò		meall-pamaoib		Same form as the Present.
	2. meall-pap		meall-paò		
	3. meall-paò pé		meall-paò		
Conditional Mood.	1. ñeall-pann		ñeall-pamaoip		Same form as the Present.
	2. ñeall-pá		ñeall-paò		
	3. ñeall-paò pé		ñeall-paò		
Infinitive Mood, do beit meall-ta.					Infinitive Mood, do beit meall-ta. Participle, meall-ta.
Participle, a5 meall-aò.					

		ACTIVE VOICE.		PASSIVE VOICE.				
		SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.			
Imperative Mood.	1.	—	ἄρβουῖς-μίρ	Same form as the Present Indicative.				
	2.	ἄρβουῖ	ἄρβουῖ-ῖῶ					
	3.	ἄρβουῖ-εαῶ ρέ	ἄρβουῖ-ῶρ					
Pres. Tense.	1.	ἄρβουῖ-ιμ	ἄρβουῖ-μῖῶ	ἄρβουῖ-τέαρ { μέ } { τῦ } { ἔ }	ἄρβουῖ-τέαρ { ριμ, ιμν } { ριβ, ῖβ } { ιαῶ }			
	2.	ἄρβουῖ-η	ἄρβουῖ-ἑί					
	3.	ἄρβουῖ-ῖῶ ρέ	ἄρβουῖ-ῖῶ					
Consuet. Present.	1.	ἄρβουῖ-εαμ { μέ } { τῦ } { ρέ }	ἄρβουῖ-εαμ { ριμ } { ριβ } { ριαῶ }	Same form as the Present.				
	2.							
	3.							
Simple Past.	1.	ἄρβουῖ-εαρ	ἄρβουῖ-εαμιαρ	ἄρβουῖ-εαῶ { μέ } { τῦ } { ἔ }	ἄρβουῖ-εαῶ { ριμ, ιμν } { ριβ, ῖβ } { ιαῶ }			
	2.	ἄρβουῖ-η	ἄρβουῖ-εαῖαρ					
	3.	ἄρβουῖ ρέ	ἄρβουῖ-εαῶαρ					
Consuet. Past.	1.	ἄρβουῖ-ιμν	ἄρβουῖ-μίρ	ἄρβουῖ-ἑί { μέ } { τῦ } { ἔ }	ἄρβουῖ-ἑί { ριμ, ιμν } { ριβ, ῖβ } { ιαῶ }			
	2.					ἄρβουῖ-ἑεά		
	3.					ἄρβουῖ-εαῶ ρέ	ἄρβουῖ-ῶρ	
Future.	1.	ἄρβεοῖ-αῶ	ἄρβεοῖ-αμασιῶ	ἄρβεοῖ-αρ { μέ } { τῦ } { ἔ }	ἄρβεοῖ-αρ { ριμ, ιμν } { ριβ, ῖβ } { ιαῶ }			
	2.	ἄρβεοῖ-αρ	ἄρβεοῖ-ἑασιῶ					
	3.	ἄρβεοῖ-αῶ ρέ	ἄρβεοῖ-αῶ					
Conditional Mood.	1.	ἄρβεοῖ-αμν	ἄρβεοῖ-αμασιῦρ	ἄρβεοῖ-αῖδε { μέ } { τῦ } { ἔ }	ἄρβεοῖ-αῖδε { ριμ, ιμν } { ριβ, ῖβ } { ιαῶ }			
	2.	ἄρβεοῖ-ἑά	ἄρβεοῖ-ἑασιῶ					
	3.	ἄρβεοῖ-αῶ ρέ	ἄρβεοῖ-αῖσιῦρ					
Infinitive Mood, ὁ ἄρβουῖσάῶ		Infinitive Mood, ὁ βεῖε ἄρβουῖσῑτε						
Participle, αῖς ἄρβουῖσάῶ		Participle, ἄρβουῖσῑτε.						

VII. IRREGULAR VERBS.

1. There are fourteen irregular verbs, several of which are defective, i.e., want one or more of the moods and tenses. The conjugation of some of them, it will be observed, is made up of that of two or more different verbs.

2. It will also be observed that through all their irregularities, the five synthetic personal terminations remain unchanged; for which reason it is scarcely correct to call these verbs irregular at all.

3. The irregular verbs are as follows:—(1), τάμ, I am; (2), the assertive verb η; (3), βειρίμ, I give; (4), βειρίμ, I bear; (5), έσμ, I see (including πεϊσίμ); (6), κλυμίμ, I hear; (7), δέαν-αμ, I do; (8), ζήμίμ or νίμ, I do; (9), βειρίμ, I say; (10), φαğάμ or ζειβίμ, I find; (11), ιείμ, I eat; (12), ριğίμ, I reach; (13), τείβίμ, I go; (14), τιğίμ, I come.

4. The following is the synthetic conjugation of the irregular verbs (except in the case of the second verb η, which has no synthetic conjugation). They may be all conjugated analytically, by using the third person singular of each tense with the three personal pronouns singular and plural, as shown in case of the regular verb at page 49. As an example, the analytic conjugation of the present tense of the first verb, τάμ, is given.

(1.) Τάμ, *I am.*

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
1.	1. βίμίς, let us be.
2. βί, be thou.	2. βίσίβ, be ye.
3. βίβεαδ ρέ, or βίβδ ρέ, let him be.	3. βίσίς, let them be.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. τάμ, ατάμ, I am.	1. τάμασιδ, ατάμασιδ, we are.
2. τάμ, ατάμ, thou art.	2. τάτασι, ατάτασι, ye are.
3. τά ρέ, ατά ρέ, he is.	3. τάιδ, ατάιδ, they are.

Present Tense : analytic conjugation.

1. τά μέ, ατά μέ, I am:	1. τά ριμ, ατά ριμ, we are.
2. τά τύ, ατά τύ, thou art.	2. τά ριδ, ατά ριδ, ye are.
3. τά ρέ, ατά ρέ, he is.	3. τά ριαδ, ατά ριαδ, they are.

Consuetudinal Present.

1. βίδμ, I am usually.	1. βίδμδ, βίδμδ, βίωμασιδ, we are usually.
2. βίδμ, thou art usually.	2. βίδεί, βίδεί, ye are usually.
3. βίδεαν ρέ, or βίον ρέ, he is usually.	3. βίδ, βίδιδ, they are usually.

Interrogative and Negative Present.

(The negative particle is here used : see Par. 3, p. 69.)

1. ní β-πιμ, I am not.*	1. ní β-πιμδ, we are not.
2. ní β-πιμ, thou art not.	2. ní β-πιμεί, ye are not.
3. ní β-πιμ ρέ, he is not.	3. ní β-πιμιδ, they are not.

* These are commonly pronounced in conversation as if the β-πι were omitted in each case ; and accordingly they are often contracted in books to ní'μ, ní'μ, ní'μ ρέ, &c.

Past Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|---------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. Ъѣѡар, Ъѣѡр, I was. | 1. Ъѣѡамар, Ъѣѡмар, we were. |
| 2. Ъѣѡр, Ъѣр, thou wert. | 2. Ъѣѡабар, Ъѣѡбар, ye were. |
| 3. Ъѣѡ рѣ, Ъѣ рѣ, he was. | 3. Ъѣѡабар, Ъѣѡбар, they were. |

Consuetudinal Past.

- | | |
|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1. Ъѣѡмн, Ъѣмн, I used to be. | 1. Ъѣѡмѣр, Ъѣмѣр, we used to be. |
| 2. Ъѣѡѣѡ, Ъѣѣѡ, thou usedst to be. | 2. Ъѣѡѣѣ, Ъѣѣѣ, ye used to be. |
| 3. Ъѣѡѡ рѣ, Ъѣѡ рѣ, he used to be. | 3. Ъѣѡѡѣр, Ъѣѡѣр, they used to be. |

Interrogative and Negative Past.

(The negative particle is here used : see Par. 3, p. 69).

- | | |
|-----------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. нѣ раѡар, I was not. | 1. нѣ раѡамар, we were not. |
| 2. нѣ раѡар, thou wert not. | 2. нѣ раѡабар, ye were not. |
| 3. нѣ раѡ рѣ, he was not. | 3. нѣ раѡабар, they were not. |

Future.

- | | |
|--------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. беѣѡѡ, I shall be. | 1. беѣѡмѡ, we shall be. ° |
| 2. беѣѡр, thou shalt be. | 2. беѣѡѡ, ye shall be. |
| 3. беѣѡ рѣ, he shall be. | 3. беѣѡѡ, they shall be. |

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

- | | |
|--|---------------------------|
| 1. beidinn, I would be. | 1. beidmír, we would be. |
| 2. beidcéá, thou wouldst be. | 2. beidcíf, ye would be. |
| 3. beidcað ré, or beid ré,
he would be. | 3. beidír, they would be. |

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Do beid, *to be.*

PARTICIPLE.

að beid, *being.*

1. **Úá** is commonly called the substantive verb, and answers to the verb "to be" in English.

2. It has two forms, which the regular verb has not, namely, a form in the present tense for interrogation and negation (*b-puilim*), and a form in the past tense for the same (*paðar*). These two are classed by O'Donovan as a subjunctive mood, present and past tense.

3. The forms *b-puilim* and *paðar* are used only:—

(a.) After negative and interrogative particles; as *ní b-puil ré tinn*, he is not sick; *ní pað mé ann rin*, I was not there: *an b-puil ríon in ðar lonðarb?* "Is there wine in your ships?" *An paðar að an ð-carrarð?* "Wert thou at the rock" (or at Carrick)? *O nað b-puil ðul uað aðam*, "since I cannot escape from him" (lit. "since it is not with me to go from him"); *an b-puil a ríor aðar réin, a ríinn?* *ní ríul, ar ríonn*, "Is the knowledge of it with thyself, O Finn?" "It is not," says Finn."

(But these forms are not used after the interrogative *cionnar*, how?)

(b.) After *go*, that; as *deirim go b-puil ré plán*, I say that he is well.

(c.) After the relative *a* when it follows a preposition, or when it signifies "all that" (Par. 3, page 47); as *creud é an ppeasra éabarrar ar Ohia, a go a b-puil rior do loct?* "What answer wilt thou give to God, who has a knowledge of thy sins?" (lit. "with whom is a knowledge"); *a b-puil ó Ath-cliaé go h-Oileán mór an bharrar,* "all that is from Ath-cliaé (Dublin) to Oileán mór an Bharraigh;" *do deirimís ar m-bria-éar naé bea go linn a m-beuram go Finn d'ioé,* "we pledge our word, that we do not think it little, all that we shall bring of them to Finn."

4. This verb, like verbs in general, has a relative form for the present and future; but the relative form of the present is always a consuetudinal tense (whereas in regular verbs it is generally not consuetudinal); as *map an g-céadna bíor* (or *bídear*) *an báp an oipéill do ríor ar an duine;* "in like manner death is (in the habit of) lying in wait always for man."

5. The analytic form of this verb is now far more common in the spoken language than the synthetic. In asking a question the analytic form is often preferred: but in answering, the synthetic; as *an raib tú a go an g-Carrar?* *Oo bíor a go an g-Carrar,* "Were you at Carrick? I was at Carrick."

6. The letter *a* is often prefixed to the present tense both in speaking and writing: *atá* instead of *tá*, &c.; it is sometimes slightly emphatic, but oftener merely euphonic, and does not otherwise affect the meaning.

7. This verb is often used as an auxiliary, like the verb "to be" in English; and it is the only verb in the Irish language that can be regarded

as an auxiliary. Thus, instead of *buaiteap mé*, I am struck, we can say *τά μέ buaíte*: for *do buaileadh mé*, I was struck, *do bí mé buaíte*, &c.

(2.) *I*, *it is*.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

I, *it is*: as *í* *mé*, *it is I*; *í* *tu*, *it is thou*.

Past Tense.

ba or *bu*, *it was*; as *ba mé*, *it was I*.

Future Tense.

bu or *bu*, *it will be*.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

ba, *it would be*

1. This is commonly called the assertive verb.

2. It has no inflection for person, being always used in the third person singular: hence it is often called the impersonal verb.

3. It has no other moods and tenses besides those given above.

4. It takes other forms in the modern language, some of them contracted, which are often puzzling to learners.

5. After *g*, that, it is often made *ab*, which is given by O'Donovan as a subjunctive mood; as *creidim g* *ab é atá tinn*, I believe that it is he (who) is sick: *meapaim dá péir riu, g* *ab dá bhiaḡam agur ríce pul puḡadh Abrahám éanic Paḡcolón i n-Eirinn*, "I think, according to that

that it is two years and twenty before Abraham was born, that Partholon came to Erin."

6. Very often $\zeta\upsilon\pi$ ab is shortened by omitting the a; as $\epsilon\pi\epsilon\iota\delta\iota\mu$ $\zeta\upsilon\pi$ 'bé, &c.; and sometimes the b is joined to $\zeta\upsilon\pi$, as $\epsilon\pi\epsilon\iota\delta\iota\mu$ $\zeta\upsilon\pi\beta$ é, &c.

7. After $\mu\acute{\alpha}$, if, the i is omitted, as $\mu\acute{\alpha}'\rho$ $\rho\acute{\iota}\sigma\pi$ é, if it be true; and in this case the r is often joined to the $\mu\acute{\alpha}$; as $\mu\acute{\alpha}'\rho$ $\rho\acute{\iota}\sigma\pi$ é: $\mu\acute{\alpha}'\rho$ $\mu\alpha\iota\tau$ $\lambda\epsilon\alpha\tau$ a $\beta\epsilon\iota\tau$ $\beta\upsilon\alpha\eta$, $\epsilon\alpha\iota\tau$ $\rho\upsilon\alpha\rho$ $\alpha\zeta\upsilon\pi$ $\tau\epsilon\iota\tau$, "if you wish to be long-lived, drink cold and hot" (or "drink cold and flee"—a celebrated Irish saying of double meaning).

8. Sometimes ba or ba is shortened to b or b alone, which again is often joined to the preceding word; as $\lambda\alpha\omicron\epsilon$ δ' $\acute{\alpha}\rho$ β' $\alpha\iota\mu\mu$ $\lambda\iota\rho$, or $\lambda\alpha\omicron\epsilon$ $\delta\alpha\rho\beta$ $\alpha\iota\mu\mu$ $\lambda\iota\rho$, "a hero whose name was Lir;" of which the full construction is, $\lambda\alpha\omicron\epsilon$ $\delta\omicron$ a $\rho\omicron$ $\beta\alpha$ $\alpha\iota\mu\mu$ $\lambda\iota\rho$, "a hero to whom was name Lir."

9. There is another form, $\rho\acute{\alpha}$, for the past tense, which is now disused, but which is constantly used by Keating, and by other writers of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries: $\rho\acute{\alpha}$ $\tau\epsilon\acute{\rho}\alpha\eta\epsilon\alpha\rho$ $\alpha\eta$ $\text{C}\epsilon\alpha\tau$ $\rho\omicron$, "this Ceat was a mighty man;" $\eta\rho$ í ($\beta\alpha\eta\beta\alpha$) $\rho\alpha$ $\beta\epsilon\alpha\eta$ $\delta\omicron$ $\text{M}\eta\alpha\epsilon$ $\text{C}\omicron\iota\iota\ell$, δ' $\acute{\alpha}\rho$ β' $\alpha\iota\mu\mu$ $\delta\acute{\iota}\lambda\iota\sigma\pi$ $\text{E}\alpha\tau\acute{\upsilon}\rho$, "it is she (Banba) who was wife to Mac Coll, whose proper name was Eathur;" $\acute{\omicron}\rho$ é $\alpha\eta$ $\rho\epsilon\omicron\iota\tau\beta\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\rho\lambda\alpha$ $\rho\acute{\alpha}$ $\tau\epsilon\alpha\eta\zeta\alpha$ $\epsilon\omicron\iota\tau\acute{\epsilon}\epsilon\alpha\eta\eta$ $\rho\alpha\eta$ $\text{S}\epsilon\iota\tau\iota\alpha$ $\alpha\eta$ $\tau\epsilon\acute{\rho}\acute{\epsilon}$ $\delta\omicron$ $\acute{\epsilon}\rho\iota\alpha\ell$ $\text{N}\epsilon\iota\mu\eta\epsilon\alpha\delta$ $\alpha\eta\rho\delta\epsilon$, "since it is the Scotic language which was the common tongue in Scythia in the time that Neimheadh emigrated from it."*

10. For the distinction between $\tau\acute{\alpha}$ and $\eta\rho$, see Idioms.

* For the various forms assumed by this verb in the ancient language, see O'Donovan's most instructive article in his "Irish Grammar," p. 161.

(3.) *bheirim, I give.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
1. . . .	1. ταῖραμασιρ.
2. ταῖραιρ.	2. ταῖραιθ.
3. ταῖραιθ ρέ.	3. ταῖραιθασιρ.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

First Person Singular.

<i>Present</i> :	βειριμ, ταῖραιμ, or τυζαιμ.	} With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers
<i>Consuet. Pres.</i> :	βειρεανν.	
<i>Past</i> :	εζαρ.	
<i>Consuet. Past</i> :	βειριμν, εζαιμν.	
<i>Future</i> :	βεαρραθ, ταβαρραθ.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD :	βεαρραιμν, εβαρραιμν.	

INFINITIVE ; δο εἶραιρτ. PARTICIPLE ; αζ ταῖραιρτ.

PASSIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE ; βειρτεαρ, ταβαρτεαρ, τυζτεαρ, μέ, εὔ, ε, &c.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<i>Present</i> :	βειρτεαρ, τυζτεαρ.	} μέ, εὔ, ε, &c.
<i>Past</i> :	τυζαθ.	
<i>Consuet. Past</i> :	βειρτιδε, ετυζταιδε.	
<i>Future</i> :	βεαρραρ, ταβαρραρ.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD :	βεαρραιδε, εβαρραιδε.	

INFINITIVE ; δο βειε ταβαρτα, δο βειε τυζτα.

PARTICIPLE ; ταβαρτα, τυζτα.

1. This verb is made up of three different verbs: in some of the tenses any one of the three may be employed; in some, either of two; and in some only one; as shown in the paradigm.

2. In the present tense, *beipim* (but not the other two verbs) takes the particle *do* (which is a mark of the past in regular verbs), and commonly has its initial aspirated.

(4.) *beipim*, *I bear*.

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
1. . . .	1. <i>beipimír</i> .
2. <i>beip</i> .	2. <i>beipíð</i> .
3. <i>beipedað</i> <i>ré</i> .	3. <i>beipíðír</i> .

INDICATIVE MOOD.

First Person Singular.

<i>Present</i> :	<i>beipim</i> .	} With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
<i>Consuet. Present</i> :	<i>beipemann</i> .	
<i>Past</i> :	<i>puðar</i> .	
<i>Consuet. Past</i> :	<i>ðeipinn</i> .	
<i>Future</i> :	<i>ðeipfað</i> .	
CONDITIONAL MOOD :	<i>ðeipainn</i> .	

INFINITIVE ; *do ðreið*. PARTICIPLE ; *að ðreið*.

PASSIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD ; *beipðear* *mé*, *ú*, *é*, &c.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<i>Present</i> :	βειρῆεαυ.	}	μέ, τῷ, ἐ, &c.
<i>Past</i> :	βυζαῶ.		
<i>Consuet. Past</i> :	βειρῆσι.		
<i>Future</i> :	βέαρραυ.		
CONDITIONAL MOOD :	βέαρραιδε.		
INFINITIVE ; οὐ βειτ βειρῆε.		PARTICIPLE ; βειρῆε.	

(5.) Ὀῖμ, *I see.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
1. . . .	1. ρειομίρ, ρειομίω.
2. ρειο.	2. ρειοῖδ.
3. ρειοεῶ ρέ.	3. ρειοῖρ.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

1. ὀῖοιμ, ὀῖμ, ρειοιμ.	1. ὀῖοίμω, ὀῖμίω, ρειοιμίω
2. ὀῖοίρ, ὀῖρ, ρειοίρ.	2. ὀῖοῖσι, ὀῖσι, ρειοῖσι.
3. ὀῖοῖδ ρέ, ὀῖδ ρέ, ρειοῖδ ρέ.	3. ὀῖοῖδ, ὀῖδ, ρειοῖδ.

Consuet. Pres. ; ὀῖοεανν, ρειοεανν, μέ, τῷ, ρέ, &c.

Past.

1. ὀνοηραυ.	1. ὀνοεαμαυ.
2. ὀνοηραυρ.	2. ὀνοεαβραυ.
3. ὀνοηραυρ ρέ.	3. ὀνοεαδραυ.

First Person Singular.

<i>Consuet. Past</i> :	ὀῖοῖνν or ὀῖνν.	}	With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
<i>Future</i> :	ὀῖορεῶδ or ὀῖρεῶδ.		
CONDITIONAL MOOD :	ὀῖοῖρηνν, or ὀῖρηνν, or ρειοῖρηνν.		

INFINITIVE MOOD ; οὐ ρειοῖρην or οὐ ρειοῖρηντ.

PARTICIPLE ; αῖ ρειοῖρην or αῖ ρειοῖρηντ.

PASSIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD; ꝑeicceap, mé, tú, é, &c.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<i>Present Tense</i> :	óíðceap or ꝑeicceap.	} mé, tú, é, &c.
<i>Past</i> :	connarcað.	
<i>Past. Consuet.</i> :	óíðcí or ꝑeiccí.	
<i>Future</i> :	óíðþeap or ꝑeicþeap.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD:	óíðþiðe or ꝑeicþiðe.	

INFINITIVE MOOD; ðo þeic ꝑeicce. PARTICIPLE; ꝑeicce

1. Óíðim is defective in some of its moods and tenses, which are supplied by other verbs—the imperative and infinitive by ꝑeicim or ꝑaicim, and the past indicative of both voices by an old verb—otherwise disused—connarcam.

2. ꝑeicim or ꝑaicim, although it is brought in among the irregular verbs to supply the defects of óíðim, is itself regular.

3. Observe that the initial of óíðim is *always* aspirated.

(6.) Cluimim. *I hear.*

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Past Tense.

1. éualap.	1. éualamap.
2. éualarþ.	2. éualaðarþ.
3. éualað þé.	3. éualaðarþ.

INFINITIVE MOOD ACTIVE; ðo éloþ or ðo éloþeitin.

PARTICIPLE ACTIVE; aþ éloþ or aþ éloþeitin.

1. In all the other moods and tenses, cluimim is regular, and is conjugated like buail.

(7.) δέαναίμ, *I do.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

- | | |
|---------------|-----------------------|
| 1. . . . | 1. δέανάμ, δέανάμασι, |
| | δέανάμασιδ. |
| 2. δέαν. | 2. δέαναιδ. |
| 3. δέανάδ ρέ. | 3. δέαναιδίρ. |

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Past Tense.

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|--|
| 1. ριζnear, δέάρnar, δέα-
nar. | 1. ριζnearmar, δέάρnamar,
δέανάmar. |
| 2. ριζnιr, δέάρnαιr, δέα-
nαιr. | 2. ριζnearθar, δέάρnaθar,
δέανάθar. |
| 3. ριζne ρέ, δέάρnaδ ρέ,
δέαν ρέ. | 3. ριζnearθar, δέάρnaθar,
δέανάθar. |

First Person Singular.

- | | | |
|-------------------------|-------------------------------------|--|
| <i>Present :</i> | δέαναίμ. | } With the
usual termina-
tions for the
other persons
and numbers. |
| <i>Consuet. Pres. :</i> | δέανάnn. | |
| <i>Consuet. Past :</i> | ζησίδinn, δέάρnαιnn, δέα-
nαιnn. | |
| <i>Future :</i> | δέανάθδ. | |

CONDITIONAL MOOD : δέανάnn.

INFINITIVE MOOD ; δο δέανάμ or δο δέανάδ.

PARTICIPLE ; αζ δέανάμ or αζ δέανάδ.

PASSIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD ; Δέανταρ μέ, εύ, έ, &c.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

- | | | |
|------------------------|--------------------|------------------|
| <i>Present :</i> | δέανταρ. | } μέ, εύ, έ, &c. |
| <i>Past :</i> | ριζnearδ, δέάρnaδ. | |
| <i>Consuet. Past :</i> | ζησί. | |
| <i>Future :</i> | δέανάρar. | |
| CONDITIONAL MOOD : | δέανάρθε. | |

INFINITIVE MOOD ; δο θείτ δέαντα. PARTICIPLE ; δέαντα.

1. This verb and the next borrow from each other to form some of the moods and tenses in which they are defective.

(8.) $\bar{\zeta}$ ním or ním, *I do.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

First Person Singular.

Present : $\bar{\zeta}$ ním or ním.*Past :* $\bar{\zeta}$ níðear or níðear.*Consuet. Past :* $\bar{\zeta}$ níðinn or níðinn.

} With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.

PASSIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present : $\bar{\zeta}$ nítear or nítear.*Consuet. Past :* $\bar{\zeta}$ níci or níci.

} mé, tú, é, &c.

1. This verb is used in no other moods or tenses ; but so far as it goes it is very common in both forms—with and without the $\bar{\zeta}$ ($\bar{\zeta}$ ním and ním). The other moods and tenses are expressed by means of *béanam*.

(9.) *deirim*, *I say.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.

Plural.

1. . . .

1. *abram*, *abramaoir*, *abramaoib.*2. *abar.*2. *abraib.*3. *abrað ré:*3. *abraðaoir.*

INDICATIVE MOOD.

*Present Tense.*1. *deirim:*1. *deirimib.*2. *deirir.*2. *deirib.*3. *deir ré.*3. *deirib.**Consuet. Pres.* *deireann me, tú, ré, &c.*

Past.

1. *dußra*.
2. *dußrair*.
3. *dußairt ré*.

1. *dußramar*.
2. *dußraðar*.
3. *dußraðar*.

First Person Singular.

Consuet. Past : *deirinn*.
Future : *déarfað*.

CONDITIONAL
 MOOD : *déarfainn*.

} With the usual
 terminations for
 the other persons
 and numbers.

INFINITIVE MOOD ; *do ráð*. PARTICIPLE ; *að ráð*.

PASSIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD ; *abartar mé, tú, é, &c.*

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present : *deirtear*.

Past : *dußrað*.

Consuet Past : *deirðí*.

Future : *déarfar*.

CONDITIONAL
 MOOD : *déarfaðe*.

} *mé, tú, é, &c.*

INFINITIVE MOOD ; *do ðeit ráðte, do ðeit ráite*.

PARTICIPLE ; *ráðte, ráite*.

1. The verb *abrain*, I say, from which *deirim* borrows its imperative, is itself a regular verb.

2. Observe the characteristics of *dußra*, the past indicative active :—(a) it does not take the participle *do* or *po* ; (b) the initial is not aspirated.

3. The letter *a* is often prefixed to this verb for the sake of emphasis ; as *a deirim* for *deirim*, I say ; *a dußairt ré* for *dußairt ré*, he said.

(10.) Բաճալմ or ճեւծմ, *I find.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
1. . . .	1. Բաճալմ, Բաճալծ.
2. Բաճ.	2. Բաճալծ.
3. Բաճալ, Բե.	3. Բաճալծիր.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

1. Բաճալմ or ճեւծմ.	1. Բաճալծ or ճեւծմծ.
2. Բաճալր or ճեւծր.	2. Բաճալծ or ճեւծմծ.
3. Բաճալծ Բե, or ճեւծ Բե.	3. Բաճալծ or ճեւծմ.

Past.

1. Բարար.	1. Բարարար.
2. Բարար.	2. Բարարար.
3. Բարար Բե.	3. Բարարար.

First Person Singular.

<i>Consuet. Past :</i>	Բաճալմ or ճեւծմ.	} With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
<i>Future :</i>	ճեւծած, ճեւծած.	
<i>Future neg. & interrog.</i>	ճեւծած or Բարարար.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD :	ճեւծալմ, ճեւծալմ. or Բ-Բաճալմ, Բ-Բարար	

INFINITIVE ; Բ'Բաճալ. PARTICIPLE ; աճ Բաճալ.

PASSIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD ; Բաճալ me, էւ, է, &c.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<i>Present :</i>	Բաճալ.	} Mե, էւ, է. &c.
<i>Past :</i>	Բարար or Բար.	
<i>Consuet. Past :</i>	ճեւծի.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD :	ճեւծալի, Բ-Բարարի.	

(Defective in Infinitive and Participle.)

1. The second form of this verb (*ḡeibim*) has its initial aspirated in the present and future active.

2. The past tense (*puarar*, &c.) may or may not take the particle *oo* or *po*; but its initial consonant is not aspirated.

(11.) *lēm*, *I eat*.

ACTIVE VOICE.

First Person Singular.

<i>Future Indicative</i> :	ioḡpað.	} With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
CONDITIONAL MOOD :	ioḡpaimn.	

1. The past indicative is either the regular form *o'icear*, &c., or the irregular *ouar* (with the usual terminations:—*ouar*, *ouaio* *pe*, &c.)

2. The infinitive is *o'ice*.

3. In other respects this verb is regular.

(12.) *Riḡim*, *I reach*.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
1.	1. riḡmif.
2. riḡ.	2. riḡio.
3. riḡeað <i>pe</i> .	3. riḡioif.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. riḡim	1. riḡmio.
2. riḡip	2. riḡiof.
3. riḡ <i>pe</i> .	3. riḡio.

Past.

- | | |
|-------------------------|--------------|
| 1. ράνζαρ. | 1. ράνζαμαρ. |
| 2. ράνζαιρ. | 2. ράνζαβαρ. |
| 3. ράνιζ ρέ, ράναιζ ρέ. | 3. ράνζαβαρ. |

First Person Singular.

<i>Consuet Past :</i>	ριζιnn.	} With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
<i>Future :</i>	ριζφεαδ.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD :	ριζφιnn.	

INFINITIVE ; δο ριαόταιν or δο ροόταιν.

1. The past, future, and conditional, are sometimes expressed by a different verb, as follows:— but this form (which is the same form as the infinitive), is not often met with in the modern language.

First Person Singular.

<i>Past :</i>	ριαόταρ.	} With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
<i>Future :</i>	ριαότφαδ.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD :	ριαότφαιnn.	

(13.) Τείδιm, *I go.*

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
1. . . .	1. τείδιmςφ.
2. τείδ.	2. τείδιδ.
3. τειδεαδ ρέ.	3. τείδιδςφ.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. τείδιm.	1. τείδιmςδ.
2. τείδιρ.	2. τείδιειδ or τείειδ
3. τείδ ρέ.	3. τείδιδ.

Past Tense.

- | | |
|--------------|-------------|
| 1. éuaðar. | 1. éuaðmar. |
| 2. éuaðair. | 2. éuaðbar. |
| 3. éuaið ré. | 3. éuaððar. |

There is another form of the past tense of this verb used after the particles *ño*, *ní*, &c., which O'Donovan classes as a subjunctive mood. The negative *ní*, which aspirates, is here prefixed: after *ño*, the initial would be eclipsed.

- | | |
|-------------------|-----------------|
| 1. ní ðeaáar. | 1. ní ðeaáamar. |
| 2. ní ðeaáair. | 2. ní ðeaáabar. |
| 3. ní ðeaáaið ré. | 3. ní ðeaáaðar. |

	First Person Singular.	} With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
<i>Consuet Past :</i>	éíðinn.	
<i>Future :</i>	raéparð or raáað.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD :	raéparinn or raááinn.	

INFINITIVE ; ðo ðul. PARTICIPLE ; aó ðul.

(14.) *tióim, I come.*

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
1. . . .	1. tióimfir or tióeam.
2. tar or tió.	2. tióð.
3. tióeað ré.	3. tióðfir.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

1. tióim.	1. tióimfo.
2. tiófir.	2. tióð, tióéð
3. tió ré	3. tióo.

Past Tense.

- | | |
|--------------|--------------|
| 1. εάνῳαρ. | 1. εάνῳαμαρ. |
| 2. εάνῳαιρ. | 2. εάνῳαβαρ. |
| 3. εάμικ ρέ. | 3. εάνῳαβαρ. |

First Person Singular

<i>Consuet Past</i>	εἶῳιη.	} With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
<i>Future:</i>	εἶορφαῶ.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD:	εἶορφαἷηη	

INFINITIVE; ὄο εεαῶτ. PARTICIPLE; αῳ εεαῶτ.

OTHER DEFECTIVE VERBS.

1. The following defective verbs are often met with in the modern language.

Αἶρ or αρ, "says." It is used only in the third person, much like the English defective verb *quoth*; as, αἶρ ρέ, says he: *ρευῶ ὄο ὄευνφαἶρ ὄαμ ?* αρ ὄιαρμαἶῶ: "What wilt thou do for me?" says Diarmaid; "ὄεαν εῶλυρ ὄύιηη μαρ α ὄ-ρῶιλ ρέ, αρ ρἶαῶ, "give knowledge to us where he is," said they (or say they)." In the older writings this verb is often written *ol*.

Ατ βατ, he (or she) died.

ὄαρ, it seems, it seemed, or it might seem (according to the tense or mood of the verb with which it is connected). ὄαρ λιῶμ, methinks or methought; ὄαρ λεατ it seems or seemed to thee; and so on with the rest of these prepositional pronouns singular and plural: ὄο ρἶε ρέ, ὄαρ λιῶμ, μαρ αν ῳαἶε, he ran, methought (or it seemed to me) like the wind.

ὄλιῳεαρ, it is lawful, it is allowed.

Dup, to know; *éainic ré dup an raiḃriab ann*, he came (in order) to know whether they were there.

Ḃeabap, I know; used only negatively and interrogatively, and in the present tense: *ní Ḃeabap mé*, I do not know; *ní Ḃeabap ré*, he does not know; *an Ḃ-Ḃeabapabap?* do ye know?

Ní puláip, it is necessary (or "must," used impersonally); *ní puláip ḃam a ḃeicé air riuḃal*, "it is necessary for me to be (or I must be) walking (away)."

CHAPTER VI.

ADVERBS, PREPOSITIONS, CONJUNCTIONS, INTERJECTIONS.

I. ADVERBS.

1. There are not many simple adverbs in the Irish language. Far the greatest number of the Irish adverbs are compounds of two or more words.

2. An adverb may be formed from an adjective by prefixing the particle *ḡo*, which in this application has the same effect as the English postfix *ly*; as *bopb*, fierce; *ḡo bopb*, fiercely. Almost all Irish adjectives admit of being changed in this manner to adverbs.

3. Besides the adverbs formed in this way, there are many compound adverbs, which are generally made up of a noun and a preposition; the preposition often causing an eclipsis.

4. The following is an alphabetical list of the compound adverbs in most general use, with a few of the simple adverbs. Some of the compound adverbs become, in some situations, prepositions:—

A ḃ-Ḃad, far off, in space or time.

Aḃup, on this side. (See *éall*.)

A ḃ-ḃopac, at first, in the beginning.

A ḃ-ḃuaiḃ, northwards.

A ḡ-céadóip, immediately.

- Α ἄ-céin, far off.
 Α ἄ-coínnuioe, always.
 Α ἄ-pín, there.
 Α ἄ-pó, here.
 Α ἄ-púo, yonder.
 Αἰρ αἰρ, back, backward. —
 (See αἰρ εἰγῖν.)
 Αἰρ ball, on the spot, in-
 stantly.
 Αἰρ bié, at all.
 Αἰρ bun, on foundation:
 ouρ αἰρ bun, to found,
 to institute.
 Αἰρ óeana, in like manner;
 in general.
 Αἰρ coiúoe, for ever.
 Αἰρ εἰγῖν, with difficulty;
 perforce:—αἰρ αἰρ no αἰρ
 εἰγῖν, by consent or by
 force: *nolens volens; willy
 nilly.*
 Αἰρ ἄ-cúl, backwards, back:
 ouρ αἰρ ἄ-cúl—the op-
 posite to ouρ αἰρ bun—to
 put back, to abolish.
 Αἰρ leié, apart, separately.
 Αἰρ móo, in a manner; so
 that:
 Αἰρ pon, for the sake of.
 Αἰρ uairiúo, at times; some-
 times.
 Αμαó, out of, outside.
 Αμάin, alone, only.
 Αμάραó, to-morrow.
 Αμουῖ, outside.
 Αμνυί, like, as.
 Αn áipde, on high. —
 Αné, yesterday.
 Αníop, from below, upwards.
 Αnn émpεαóε, together.
 Αnn pín, there.
 Αnn pó, here:
 Αnn púo, yonder.
 Α ndeap, southward.
 Αnace, near.
 Αnall, to this side; hither.
 Α nḡap, near.
 Αnu, to-day.
 Αnoip, now.
 Αnonn, to that side; thither.
 Αn tan, when.
 Αnuap, from above, down-
 wards.
 Αpéip, last night.
 Αpιαñ, ever.
 Αpíp, again.
 Αpεαó, in, into.
 Αpτιῖ, in, inside.
 beaḡ naó, little but; almost.
 Cá h-ap, cáo ap, canap,
 from what? whence?
 Cá mérió, how many? how
 much?
 Cáιτ, cá h-áiτ, cia áιτ,
 what place?
 De bpiḡ, because.
 Do píop, always.
 Eaðon, that is; *i.e.; id est.*
 Pá, gives an adverbial mean-
 ing to some words.
 Pá óεαóóip, immediately.
 Pá oeoiḡ, at last.
 Pá úó, twice.
 Pá pεaó, by turns; respec-
 tively.
 Pa épi, thrice.
 Do bpiát, for ever (lit. to
 [the] judgment).
 Do deimín, verily; truly;
 indeed.
 Do o-éi, unto. *pu*
 Do póil, yet; awhile. —
 Do h-iomlán, altogether.
 Do léip, entirely.
 Do leóip, enough.
 Iomoppo, however, more-
 over, indeed.
 Maille pe, together with.
 Map an ḡ-céabna, likewise;
 in like manner.

Map aon le, together with.
 No go, until.
 O join ale, from that time
 out.
 Op cionn, above.
 Sfor, downwards.
 Soip, eastwards.

Suap, upwards.
 Thall, on the other side; be-
 yond. (See Abup.)
 Tamall, awhile.
 Tuille eile, besides; more-
 over.

II. PREPOSITIONS.

1. The following is a list of the simple preposi-
 tions:—

A or i, in; as a mbaile, in
 the town.
 A, out of, or from (unusual);
 as a Mumain, out of
 Munster.
 Ag or aig, at, with.
 Air, ar, upon.
 Ann, in. This takes r before
 the article. (See page 17.)
 Ar, out of.
 Chum, to or towards, for the
 purpose of.
 Dar, used in swearing, equi-
 valent to *by*: dar mo bria-
 can, "by my word."
 Do, to. De, from, off, of.
 Eadar, the same as idir.
 Fa or faoi, under.
 Gan, without.
 Go, towards, along with. It
 takes r before the article
 an; as gur an d-tiob, to the
 house.

I, the same as a.
 Iap, after. It takes r before
 the article (an), and be-
 comes iarr.
 Idir, between.
 Im, the same as um.
 Le or pe, with. It takes r
 before the article (an), and
 then becomes leir or pir.
 Map, like, as.
 O, from.
 Op, over, above.
 Re, ria, before. It takes r
 before the article (an).
 Seac, beyond, besides.
 Tar, over, across. It takes
 r before the article (an),
 and then becomes tarr.
 Tre, through. It takes r
 before the article, and then
 becomes treir.
 Triob, the same as tre.
 Um or im, about.

2. Some of the simple prepositions are amalga-
 mated with the personal and possessive pronouns,
 for which see pages 41, 45.

3. Besides the simple prepositions, there are in
 Irish a number of compound prepositions. Each
 of these consists of a simple preposition followed
 by a noun; and in many of them the initial of the
 noun is eclipsed by the influence of the simple

preposition. In some cases the preposition has dropped out and only the noun remains.

4. The following is a list of the most usual compound prepositions, with their meanings:—

A b-riaðnaíre, in presence of.

A b-foðair, with, along with.

A b-taíob, in regard to, concerning.

A b-timdeall: see timdeall,

A g-ceann, at the head of, at the end of, with regard to.

A g-coimne, against, for (in the phrase to go *for*): níob a g-coimne a céile, "they run against each other:" do éuaib re a g-coimne a aáar, he went for his father.

A g-coir, by the side of, hard by, along. This is often contracted to coir: coir na bñíðbe, "beside the (river) Bride."

A h-aíle, after: a h-aíle na laíðe rín, "after that lay."

Ameapg, amongst: ríor amearg na g-coillteað, "down amongst the woods."

A láair, in presence of.

Air aáaib, forward, over against, opposite: dul air aáaib, to go forward, to progress: air aáaib na gaoíte, opposite (exposed to) the wind.

Air béalaib, in front of, opposite: do luíðóir do gñáé a n-íombáib ar béalaib a n-aáar, "they used to lie customarily, in beds opposite their father" (Children of Lir).

Air bun, on foundation.

Air éceann, for (in the phrase to go for); as a duðairt Nairé le h-Ardán dul air éceann Fepguir, "Naisi said to Ardan to go for Fergus."

Air feað, through, throughout, during: air feað bliaðna, "during a year."

Air feub, throughout, amongst air feub na b-conn, amongst the waves.

Air g-cúl, behind.

Air rón, for the sake of, although.

A n-ðiaib, after: a n-ðiaib a céile, after one another, one after another.

Coir, contracted from a g-coir.

Dála, as to: dála blánaibe, "as to Blanaid."

D'éir, after: d'éir na bñunne, "after the deluge."

D'ionnraíð or d'ionnraíðe, towards: gluaípear rónne d'ionnraíðe a lunnge, "he goes forward towards his ship."

Do cum, towards.

Do réir, according to.

Do nuige, unto, until.

Do d-tí, to, unto, as far as: ruibail go d-tí an dorur,
walk to the door.

Iomtúra, as to: iomtúra Fhinn, "as to Finn."

Rá éuairim, towards.

Lám le or lám pe, near, by, beside: suið lám liom, sit
near me; lám pe beannaib boirce, "beside Beanna
Boirche."

Or cionn, over, above: Dhaðuið Dia or cionn gað uile
nið, "love God above all things:" ro éirið or cionn an
gaoi, "he rose over the spear."

I g-cionn, the same as a g-ceann: i g-cionn na bliadhna,
"at the end of the year."

Tar éann, besides, for the sake of, beyond, in preference to.

Tar air, backwards; same as air air.

Tar éir, after; the same as déir: tar éir na Samna,
"after the Samhain (1st of November)."

Timceall, about, around: teaçt timceall Dhiarmanða,
"to go around Dermat."

Or comair, in presence of, before the face of: or comair
Fhinn, "in presence of Finn."

III. CONJUNCTIONS.

1. There are few simple conjunctions in the Irish language.

2. There are, however, many compound conjunctions, much like the English conjunctive phrases, "for the reason that," "to the end that," &c.

3. Generally speaking, the meanings of the compound conjunctions may be easily gathered from the signification of the words that compose them; but there are a few whose meanings are not so plain.

4. The following is a list of the simple conjunctions with their meanings, together with those of the compound conjunctions whose meanings are not quite obvious.

- Αότ, but, except.
 Αότ έεαηα, but however.
 Αζυρ, and; often contracted to α'ρ, αρ, and 'ρ.
 Αιρ an αδδαρ ριν, wherefore.
 Αν, an interrogative particle: an υ-ρυιλ ρί ρλάν? Is she well?
 Αρ, the same as the last, only used with the past tense. See. p. 58.
 βίφδ, although: it is really the third singular imperative of the verb τάιμ.
 Cíδ: see ζίδ.
 Cόη, as.
 Δά, if: sometimes written δά μο.
 Δο βριζ, because.
 Δο έυμ ζο, in order that.
 Εόρ, yet, moreover.
 Ζίδ or ζιδεαδ, although.
 Ζο, that.
 Ζοηαδ αιρε ριν, wherefore.
- Ζυρ, that: formed of the preceding and ρο: see p. 58.
 Ιοηά, ιηά: see ηά.
 Ιοηυρ ζο, in order that, so that.
 Ιηά, if.
 Ιηά τά ζο, although that.
 Ιαρ, as: see μυηα.
 Μυηα, if not, unless; often written μυρ, and even (corruptly) μαρ.
 Μαυρεαδ, if so, well then.
 Μαρ ριν, μαρ ρο, in that manner, in this manner: thus.
 Νά, than: see ιοηά.
 Νά, nor, not.
 Νό, or: often pronounced nú in Munster.
 Ο, since, seeing that, because.
 Ο έάριε, since, whereas.
 Οιρ, because.
 Συλ, before.
 Υιμε ριν, therefore, wherefore.

IV. INTERJECTIONS.

1. The following is a list of the most common interjections. Besides these there are many interjectional expressions somewhat like the English, "O shame!" "Alack! and well-a-day!" but it is not necessary to enumerate them:—

- Α, the sign of the vocative case, usually translated O. — Μοηάυρε, O shame!
 Αρ τρυαζ, alas! what pity! — Μοηυαρ, alas! woe is me!
 Ειρτ, hush! list! — Μο έρυαζ: see αρ τρυαζ.
 Παραιορ, παραιορ, alas! — Οδ, υδ, alas!
 Παραιορ ζευρ, alas! O — Οδόν, or υδόν, alas! written οδάν or υδάν in old writings.
 Ρέαδ, see! behold! — Ολαζόν, alas!
 Μαιρζ, woe! O sad!

CHAPTER VII.

PREFIXES AND AFFIXES.

1. There are in Irish, as in other languages, prefixes and affixes, which modify the meanings of words.

I. PREFIXES.

1. The following is a list of the principal prefixes with their meanings: it will be observed that many of them have a double form, which arises from conformity to the rule *caol le caol* &c.

2. Most of these are inseparable particles; but a few are also employed independently as separate words.

Ar or **er**, back or again, like English *re*: as **íoc**, payment; **airíoc**, repayment, restitution: **eirḡe**, rising; **eirpeirḡe** resurrection.

Am or **amh**, a negative particle, like English *un*: as **reíð**, open, clear; **amhpéíð**, difficult, rough.

An, an intensitive particle: as **luatḡáipeac**, joyful; as **anluatḡáipeac**, overjoyed.

An or **am**, a negative particle, like English *un*: as **tráç** time; **antráç**, untimely: **mían**, desire; **amhían**, evil desire.

Aç, a reiterative, like English *re*: as **ráð**, a saying; **açráð**, a repetition.

Aç has sometimes the meaning of English *dis* in *dismantle*: as **cuma**, a form; **açcumað**, to deform, to destroy; **pioḡað**, to crown or elect a king; **açpioḡað**, to dethrone.

ban, feminine (from *bean*, a woman); as **eaçlaç**, a messenger; **ban-eaçlaç** or **bam-eaçlaç**, a female messenger.

biç or **bioc**, lasting, constant: as **beó**, living; **biçbeó**, everlasting.

Cómh, equal : English *co* or *con* : as aimpeap, time ; cómh-aimpeapač, contemporary.

Deađ, deiđ, good : as blap, taste ; deađđblap, good or pleasant taste.

Óí, ófo, a negative, like English *dis* : as céillhóe, wise ; óí-céillhóe, foolish : ceann, a head ; óíceannađ, to behead.

Óroč, óroič, bad or evil : as obaip, a work ; óroč-obaip an evil work.

Do and po are opposites, as are also often the letters d and p. Do denotes difficulty, or ill, or the absence of some good or positive quality : as paicpeanač or popaicpeanač, visible ; do-paicpeanač, invisible : doláp, tribulation ; róláp, comfort : donap, ill luck ; ponap, good luck : do-óeunta, hard to be done ; po-óeunta, easy to be done : duđač. sad ; puđač, merry.

Ea, a negative, often causing eclipsis : as daimđean, strong ; éadaimđean, weak : cóip, just ; éađcóip, injustice : epom, heavy ; éađepom, light.

Eap, a negative : as onóip, honour ; eaponóip, dishonour : plán, healthful ; eaplán, sick : caipdeap, friendship ; eap-caipdeap, enmity.

Po, under : as duine, a man ; pođuine, an *under-man*, a common man, a servant.

Ppič, against, back, *contra* : as buille, a stroke ; ppičbuille, a back stroke : bac, a hook ; ppičđbac, a *back-hook*, a barb.

Il, iol, many : as iomađ, much ; iliomad, sundry, various : dač, a colour ; iolđačač, many coloured : pađbar, an edge ; iolpađbar, many-edged weapons.

In, ion, fit : as óeunta, done ; inóeunta, fit to be done : pađte, said ; ionpađte, fit to be said.

Úán, full, used as an intensitive : as ađbél, vast ; lánaiđbél, awfully vast.

Leač, half : as uaip, an hour ; leačuaip, half an hour. This word is also used to denote one of a pair : thus rúil, an eye ; leač-rúil (literally *half an eye*), one of two eyes. See "Idiom, No. 13."

Mí, mífo, a negative : as meap, respect ; mímeap, disrespect : cómairle, advice ; miočómairle, evil advice.

Neamh, neimh, a negative : as comriđte, comprehensible ; neamhcomriđte, incomprehensible : niđ, a thing ; neimh-niđ, nothing.

Reumh, before, like English *pre* : as pađte, said ; reumh-pađte, aforesaid.

Ro, an intensitive particle : as móip, great ; ró-móip, very great.

Sár, an intensitive particle: as *maid*, good; *ráir-maid*, very good.

So, *poi*, the opposite to *do*, denotes apt, easy, good: as *dearbëta*, proved; *poidearbëta*, easily proved.

Uir or *úir*, an intensitive particle: as *ípeal*, low; *úirípeal*, very low, humble, mean, vile.

II. AFFIXES OR TERMINATIONS.*

1. The following is a list of the principal affixes or terminations, with their meanings; but it does not include inflectional terminations, which are all given in connection with declensions and conjugations.

Ác, when it is the termination of an adjective, means full of, abounding in, like the English *y* and *ous*, with the former of which it seems cognate; as *ḍraigeán*, the black-thorn; *ḍraigeanác*, abounding in black-thorn: *briacár*, a word; *briacéarac*, wordy, talkative.

Ác, as the termination of a noun, generally denotes a personal agent; as *cúmaóc*, power: *cúmaócac*, a mighty person: *Connaócac*, a native of Connaught.

Ác, an abstract termination, like the English *ness* and *ty* (in *probability*): as *caréanac*, charitable; *caréanacé*, charity: *mór* and *mórda*, great; *moirdacé*, greatness.

Aíde, *uíde*, or *íde*, a personal termination, denoting a doer; as *cor*, a foot; *coiríde*, a walker: *tiomán*, drive; *tiománaíde*, a driver.

Aípe or *ípe*, a personal termination, denoting an agent or doer; as *lorc*, a track; *lorcaípe*, a tracker: *cealg*, guile; *cealgáípe*, a deceiver.

Aírial has the same meaning as the English *like* and *ly*: as *plac*, a prince; *placéaríal*, princely.

An, a diminutive termination, but it has now nearly lost its diminutive sense; as *loch* a lake; *lochán*, a small lake.

Ar or *ear*, and sometimes the letter *r* alone, a termination denoting abstract quality, like *ác*; as *coibinn*, delightful;

* For a full account of these terminations see the author's "Origin and History of Irish Names of Places." Second series, Chaps. I. and II.

αοῖβnear, delightfulness or delight: ceann, a head; ceannar, headship, authority.

bhap and bpe have a collective or cumulative sense; as buille, a leaf; builleabap, foliage: ɔap, an oak; ɔapbpe, a place of oaks.

Chap has a collective sense like the last; as beann, a peak or gable; beanncap, abounding in peaks or gables.

Oe, an ancient adjectival termination, has much the same meaning as the English *ful* and *ly* (in manly). In the modern language it is varied to the forms ɔa, ɔa, and ɔa; as mɔp, great; mɔpɔa, majestic: ɔap, a man; ɔapɔa, manly: mɔle, a champion; mɔleabɔa, champion-like, **knightly**.

U denotes abstract quality, like aɔt; as ɔinn, fair or white; ɔinne, fairness: ɔog, soft; ɔuige, softness.

In, a diminutive termination. This may be said to be the only diminutive that still retains its full force in the living language; and it is much used in Ireland even where Irish is not spoken. ɔɔcap, a road; ɔɔcapɔn (*bohreen*), a little road: *crusk*, a pitcher; *cruiskeen*, a little pitcher.

Uac, nac, pac, ɔac, ɔpac, have all the same meaning as aɔ, namely, full of, abounding in; as ɔpɔp, break; ɔpɔpleac, a breach, a complete defeat: muc, a pig; muclac, a piggery: luacap, rushes; luacapnac, a rushy place: ɔog, a bog or soft place; ɔogpac, a place full of bogs: coill, a wood; coillɔeac, a woody place. These seem to be cognate with the terminations in the English words *poult-ry*, *varie-ty*, &c.

Mhap means abounding in, like the English *ful* and *ly*; as ɔpɔg, power; ɔpɔgɔhap, powerful.

Og, a diminutive termination; as ɔap, black; ɔapog, a black little animal (a clock): ɔabal, a fork; ɔabalog, a little fork.

Oɔp, or ɔɔpɔp, or ɔɔpɔp, denotes an agent or doer, the same as the English *er* in *reaper*; as buaɔ, strike; buaɔɔeɔp, a thresher: comneal, a candle; comnealɔp, a candlestick: ɔpeal, a scythe; ɔpealɔp, a mower.

Re has a collective signification, like ɔap; as beul, the mouth; ɔeɔpe, language, speech.

Seac is used as a sort of feminine termination; as ɔall, an Englishman; ɔailleac, an Englishwoman: ɔnɔeac, a female fool (from an old root ɔn, whence the old word ɔnɔe, a fool, the equivalent of the modern amabɔn).

Uac and ɔpac: see lac.

PART III.

SYNTAX.*

CHAPTER I.

NOUNS.

1. When two nouns come together signifying different things, the second one is in the genitive case; as *ḡuṡ ḡaḍair*, the voice of a hound; *ı̄ ʔ-ḡlaidiur Epeann*, “in the sovereignty of Erin;” *bárr na h-ı̄nre*, the top of the island.

The noun in the genitive always follows the noun that governs it.

2. When the genitive noun is singular masculine, its initial is aspirated if the article is used; as *mac an ʔı̄r*, the son of the man. (See pages 17, 18, for this rule and its exceptions).

3. When the article is not used with the governed noun in the singular number, the initial of the latter is generally not aspirated (except in the case mentioned in next Rule); as *Conall ı̄ ḡ-ḡroṡaı̄b báı̄r*, “Conall in the forms of death;” *a n-ḍólár bḡóı̄de a’r péine*, “in the sorrow of bondage and of pain.”

* Several of the rules of Syntax have been unavoidably anticipated in Orthography and Etymology, as they are in every Irish Grammar. These rules will be referred to in their proper places in this Syntax, or repeated when thought necessary.

4. When the noun in the genitive is a proper name, its initial is generally aspirated, even though the article is not used; as *plioct Ḡhaoiðil*, “the race of Gaodhal;” *cloibeam Mhanannam*, “the sword of Manannan.”

Exception:—In this case, *ð* and *τ* often resist aspiration (p. 34); as *Eipe mḡean Dealbaoið*, “Eirè, the daughter of Dealbhaoth.”

5. If the governed noun be in the genitive plural, its initial is eclipsed with the article, (for which see page 18); and the initial is generally aspirated, if the article is not used; as *Oaugen mac n-Uirneac*, “the fortress of [*the*] sons of Usna;” *buðeam ÷upað*, “a company of knights;” *ðiap ÷an*, “two women” (or rather “a pair of women”).

Even in the absence of the article however, an eclipse sometimes occurs; as *naoi naonðap ðo bí aḡ teaðt ð'iappaið cfopa aḡur cána ÷-peap n-Eipionn*, “nine times nine persons who were coming to demand the taxes and tributes of the men of Erin.”

Sometimes also, in the absence of the article, the noun in the genitive plural is neither aspirated nor eclipsed.

6. When two nouns come together signifying the same thing (or in apposition), they generally agree in case; as *Nuaða Airḡioblám mac Eaðtaḡ mic Eaðaplám*, “Nuadha Silver-hand, son of Eachtach, son of Eadarlamh;” *na ð-τρί ÷-Finnearna, mac Eoðaið*, “of the three Finnavnas, sons of Eochad.”

Here, in the first example, *Nuaða* is nominative, and so is *mac*, which is in apposition to it; *Eaðtaḡ* is genitive, and so is the next word, *mic*, which is in apposition to it. In the second example, *Finnearna* is in the genitive (plural), and *mac* also, in opposition to it, is in the genitive (plural).

For exceptions to this Rule, see “Idioms,” No. 33, p. 129. See also next rule.

7. The last rule is not always observed: departures from it are sometimes found, even in good Irish writings; as, *ḡánniðe buðe ðpða map*

bídeadh ar Mháire, bean Sheagáin an rígeadhóra,
 “yellow gold rings as used-to-be on Mary, wife of
 John (the son of) the weaver;” éinne ríge Chial-
 puríde luachra d’ríora éomhálta, eadhon, Cian mac
 Oilholla, “the King of Kerry-Luachra came to
 visit his foster-son, that is, Cian, the son of
 Oilholl: do ériall (Oícar) a g-comne Mheargáig
 míre, an tréan leomán “Oscar went to meet
 the furious Meargach, *the strong lion.*”

The first example exhibits a disagreement in case between
 Mháire and bean, which are in apposition, the former being
 dative (after ar), the latter nominative (its dative would be
 mnáoi, p. 29). In the second example éomhálta is geni-
 tive (after the infinitive, Rule 15, p. 112), and Cian, in ap-
 position to it, is nominative (its genitive would be Céin). In
 the last example Mheargáig is genitive, and leomán, in
 apposition to it, is nominative. This last example however,
 seems properly to belong to a class of exceptions to Rule 7
 which are explained further on (“Idioms:” No. 33, page 129).

8. A noun used adjectively in English is com-
 monly expressed in Irish by a genitive case; as
 English, “a gold ring,” Irish, páinne óir, a ring
 of gold. This form of expression is very common
 in Irish; as fear dlíge, a lawyer; literally “a
 man of law.”

9. Collective nouns are singular in form, and as
 such they take the singular form of the article
 (when the article is used); but they are plural in
 signification, and as such they generally take ad-
 jectives and pronouns in the plural number, and
 also verbs in the plural, when, in accordance with
 Par. 9, p. 50, the plural form of the verb is
 used; as, nochtuid an cúipeann riu, “that com-
 pany disclose;” canzadar an buídean éiríad
 riu do láear Fhinn, agus do beannuid ríad
 do, “that *company* of knights *came* to the presence
 of Finn, and *they* saluted him.”

The personal nouns from diar to deiríneabhar, mentioned
 at page 39, follow this rule: as do badar an diar riu go
 h-impearnaé, “that pair were at strife.”

10. Nouns denoting a **part** commonly take *de* with the dative of the nouns (or pronouns) of which they form a part; as *ḡaðap d'ár nḡaðaparb*, "a hound of our hounds;" *ason áap d'ioð*, "one berry of them;" *ḡac ðuine de'n pobul*, "each person of the people."

11. The personal nouns from *d'iap* to *deicneabap* inclusive (p. 39,) and also *teópa*, three, generally govern nouns in the genitive plural; as *d'iap ban*, "two (of) women;" *a ériúr mac aḡur a d-triur ban*, "his three sons and their three wives;" *teópa ban*, "three women;" *naonbar caoireac*, "nine chieftains."

But they sometimes take *de* with the dative as in last rule; as *naoi naonbar do maoparb na b-fómpac*, "nine times nine *of the stewards* of the Fomorians;" *mo ðir mac, mo ðir d'peaparb*, "my two sons, my two men."

CHAPTER II.

THE ARTICLE AND NOUN.

1. The article agrees with its noun in number, gender, and case; as *an peap*, the man; *na cipee*, of the hen; *na ba*, the cows.

2. For the influence of the article on the noun, see p. 17.

3. When one noun governs another in the genitive, the article can be used only with the latter. Thus, in English we can say "the age of the world" (using the definite article with each noun); but in Irish, the corresponding expression is, *aoip an doimán*, not, *an aoip an doimán*.

Exception:—When a demonstrative pronoun follows the governing noun, or when the two nouns come together as a compound word, the governing noun may take the article; as *an t-oidé múnta*, the teacher; *má do beip tú an oipead rín d'úinn 'pan ló po na n-deóp*, "if thou givest

so much to us in this day of tears." Here the article is used before both *l6* and *de6p*. *Tangabap apir i n-Eirinn an rhu6c ro Shimeon 6hpic*, "these descendants of Simon Brec came again into Erin:" here the article is used before *rhu6c*, the governing noun.

4. When a possessive pronoun is used with the genitive noun, the article cannot be used with either; thus, "the house of my father" is *ceac m'acap*, not *an ceac m'acap*.

The peculiarity noticed in the last two rules exists also in English when the possessive case is used, i.e., the article can be used only with the possessive noun; as the world's age; my father's house.

5. When a demonstrative pronoun is used with a noun, the article is also used; as *an peap r6m*, that man, literally "the man that;" *na mn6 u6*, yonder women: literally "the women yonder."

6. The article is used before the names of some countries and cities, where the definite article would not be used in English; as *Moenan*, *abb Ca6pac Pupa ipm Ppamc, 6eu6*, "Moenan, abbot of Caher Fursa, in (the) France, died;" *Cpuaca na h-Eipeann*, "the stacks of (the) Erin;" *tuairceap na h-Asia*, "the north of (the) Asia." There is in Irish also a form of phrase corresponding to the English "the mighty Hector;" as *an t-Oscap 66*, "the noble Oscar."

7. When an adjective is predicated of a noun by the verb *ip* (in any of its forms), the article is used with the noun (but in the corresponding expression in English the definite article would not be used); as *ip maic an peap e*, he is a good man: literally "he is the good man."

9. The Irish article is used before abstract nouns much more commonly than the English definite article; as *an t-ocpu*, the hunger; *tpi nu6 6o cim*:—*an peaca6*, *an bap*, *a'p an p6an*, "three things I see, *the* sin, *the* death, and *the* pain."

CHAPTER III.

THE ADJECTIVE AND NOUN.

1. Adjectives denoting fulness or a part of anything may take either the dative after *de* or the genitive; as (dative after *de*):—*ἰσὶρ ὅα ἔπαυε λάν de leann*, “between two barrels full of ale;” *τά μέ λάν de náipe*, “I am full of shame;” *μόρᾶν δ’αυιρῆς*, “many of nobles:” (genitive):—*λάν α δουρη*, “the full of his fist;” *αν παῖς μόρᾶν αἰργῖδ αἰγε*, “had he much of money?” *εραοῖς δραοιζῖν αζυρ α λάν ἀρνεαῖς υἱρε*, “a branch of blackthorn and its full of sloes on it.”

2. The adjective in the comparative degree takes *νά* (or *νά* or *ιονά*) before the noun which follows it; as *ἵρ binne α ceól ná lon ’ρνά ρμόλ*, “sweeter is her voice (music) than the blackbird and than the thrush.”

Exception:—If the adjective in the comparative degree has *de* (“of it”) after it (see Idiom 39, p. 132), then *νά* is not used; as *ναῖς bu ρεῖρρδε ὀόῖς ε*, “that they would be none the better of it.”

AGREEMENT AND COLLOCATION OF THE
ADJECTIVE AND NOUN.

FIRST CASE: When the adjective is joined immediately with the noun.

When the adjective is joined immediately with the noun as a qualifying or limiting term (as in the English “a high tower”), in this case the following **ten** rules apply.

1. The natural position of the adjective is after its noun; as *καβλαῖς μόρ*, “a great fleet.”

The chief exceptions to this are stated in the next two rules.

2. Monosyllabic adjectives are often placed before their nouns; as *caol-ḡear*, "slender man;" *mór ḡairrḡe*, "great sea;" *ḡub-ḡarraḡ*, "black rock."

3. This is especially the case with the following adjectives, some of which are hardly ever used after their nouns: *ḡeaḡ*, good; *ḡroḡ*, evil; *ḡíor*, true; *nuḡ*, new; *ḡean*, old; *ḡuaḡ*, left-handed.

Numeral adjectives form another exception, for which see next chapter.

4. When a name consists of two words, the adjective comes between them; as *Sliaḡ aḡbal-mór luḡpa*, "the tremendous-large Slieve Lougher;" *Eamun mín áluinn Maḡa*, "the smooth beautiful Eman Macha."

5. When the adjective follows its noun, it agrees with it in gender, number, and case; as *ḡear maḡ*, a good man; *ḡḡéul na mná móipe*, "the story of the large woman" (gen. sing. fem.); *ar an aḡbéir ionḡanḡaḡ*, "on the wonderful abyss" (dat. sing. fem.).

6. When the adjective follows its noun, the initial of the adjective is aspirated under the circumstances already stated in Par. 6, page 10; or eclipsed in the circumstance stated in Par. 3, page 34.

7. When two or more nouns are joined together, and are followed by an adjective which qualifies or limits them, all and each, the adjective agrees with the last: in other words, it is the last noun only that influences the adjective both in grammatical inflection, and in initial change; as *ḡur ḡear maḡ*, a good woman and man; *ḡear ḡur bean maḡ*, a good man and woman.

8. When the adjective precedes the noun, as in Rules 2 and 3, above, it does not agree with the noun, i. e., it is not influenced by the noun,

either as to inflection, or as to initial change; in other words, the simple form of the adjective is used, whatever be the number, gender, or case of the noun; as *mór uairle*, "great nobles;" *do mór uairlib*, "to [the] great nobles;" *bán énoic Éireann*, "the fair hills of Erin;" *luat bára*, "swift barks;" *ríor rígeul*, "a true story;" *ríor rígeulta*, "true stories."

9. When the adjective precedes the noun, the adjective and the noun are sometimes regarded as one compound word; and the initial of the noun is aspirated (in accordance with Par. 4, page 10): also the vowel of the adjective is often modified by the rule *caol le caol* &c.; as *Deirdre an Duib-íleibe*, "Deirdre of Dubh-Shliabh;" *díg-bean*, a young woman.

10. When the adjective precedes the noun, the initial of the adjective is subject to the same changes as if the adjective and the noun formed one word, i.e., one noun; as *gáire na n-díg-íear*, "the laughter of the young men;" *an t-árð-ollamh rín*, "that chief professor;" *an t-pean-bean boct*, "the poor old woman."

SECOND CASE: When the adjective is connected with the noun by a verb.

When the adjective, instead of being joined immediately with the noun, is predicated of, or ascribed to, the noun by a verb of any kind (as in the English, "the man is tall," "he considered the man tall," "he made the knife sharp," "the roads were made straight"), in this case, the following **three** rules apply.

1. When an adjective is predicated of a noun by the verb *tá*, it follows the noun, the order being:—verb, noun, adjective; as *tá an lá breá*, "the day is fine."

2. When an adjective is predicated of a noun

by the verb *ip*, it precedes the noun, the order being:—verb, adjective, noun; as *ip bpedǵ an lá é*, it is a fine day.

3. When an adjective is ascribed to a noun by a verb of any kind, the adjective does not agree with the noun, i.e., the adjective is not influenced by it, either initially or inflectionally; in other words, the simple form of the adjective, without inflection, is used, whatever be the number or gender of the noun; and the initial of the adjective is neither aspirated nor eclipsed (unless under the influence of some other word), as *ip aibinn do cuam acap do calapuiru acap do maǵa mínicoṫ-aca caemáilne*, “delightful are thy harbours, and thy bays, and thy flowery lovely plains:” *aǵur cpoicne réiteaḁ ap na n-baṫúǵaḁ deapǵ*, “and rams’ skins dyed red.”—(Exodus, xxv. 5).

The first example (from the story of the Children of Usna), exhibits both an agreement according to Rule 5, page 101, and a disagreement according to the present rule. For the three nouns are plural, and the two last adjectives which qualify them directly are in the plural form, while the first adjective *aibinn* (modern *oibinn*) which is asserted of them by *ip*, is in its simple form (the plural would be *aibinne* or *aibne*). In the second example *cpoicne* is plural, while *deapǵ* is singular (plural *deapǵa*).

Observe the difference in meaning in the following, according to agreement or disagreement:—*Do riǵne ré na bpaic ḡlapa*; *do riǵne ré na bpaic ḡlap*: in the first the adjective agrees with the noun, (both being plural), showing that it qualifies it directly (Rule 5, p. 101) and that the meaning is, “he made the green mantles;” in the second there is no agreement, (the adjective being singular and the noun plural), showing that the adjective is connected with the noun by the verb (Rule 3 above), and that the meaning is, “he made the mantles green.”

CHAPTER IV.

NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

1. A numeral adjective, whether cardinal or ordinal, when it consists of one word, goes before its noun; as τρῑ ρῑρ, three men; ραν̄ ὑαπᾱ η̄-αῑτ, "in the second place."

2. Numeral adjectives, both cardinal and ordinal, from 11 to 19 inclusive, take their nouns between the simple numeral and ὑεᾱζ; as τρῑ καπᾱλλ̄ ὑεᾱζ, thirteen horses; αν̄ τρεᾱρ̄ ε̄παλλ̄ ὑεᾱζ, the thirteenth horse.

3. Ἄν, one; ὅα, two; ἐεᾱῶ, first; and τρεᾱρ̄, third, cause aspiration; as αν̄ ρεᾱρ̄, one man; ὅᾱ ρῑναοῑ, two women; αν̄ τρεᾱρ̄ ρεᾱε̄τ, "the third occasion."

4. The numerals ρεᾱε̄τ, ο̄ε̄τ, ναοῑ, and ὑεῑε̄, cause eclipsis (except the noun begins with ρ, in which case there is no change), as ρεᾱε̄τ μ-βλιᾱε̄-να, "seven years;" ο̄ε̄τ μ-βα, "eight cows;" ναοῑ η̄-αῑῶνε, "nine rivers;" ὑεῑε̄ ὕ-ρῑρ, "ten men."

5. The numerals τρῑ, τε̄τρε, ε̄νῑζ, ρε̄, the ordinals (except ἐεᾱῶ and τρεᾱρ̄: Rule 3 above), and the multiples of ten, cause no initial change; as τε̄τρε ζᾱῶαρ̄, "four hounds."

6. Ἄν, one, and all the multiples of ten, take their nouns in the singular number; as αν̄ λ̄α, one day; ε̄εᾱῶ εεαν̄, a hundred heads (lit. "a hundred head," just as we say "a hundred head of cattle"); τρῑ καο̄ζᾱῶ λαο̄ε̄, "three times fifty heroes;" μῑλε̄ βεαν̄, "a thousand women."

7. *Ó*á, two, takes both the article and the noun in the singular number; and if the noun be feminine, it will be in the dative form; as *ó*á *féap*, two men; an *ó*á *láim*, the two hands. (See next two rules).

8. If the noun following *ó*á be in the genitive, it will be in the genitive plural; as *lán* a *ó*á *láim*, "the full of his two hands."

9. Although *ó*á takes the article and noun in the singular, yet the adjectives and pronouns referring to the noun will be in the plural, and the noun may also take a plural verb; as *do* *gluaifeada* an *ó*á *éirimíleá* *rim*, "these two strong heroes went;" *po* *gab* a *ó*á *féağ* *éropairpinge* *épann-peaimpa* *ap* na *b-poépuğá* a *b-puil* *naépac* *neime*, "he took his two wide-socketed thick-handled spears, *they* having been bathed in the blood of serpents." Here the two adjectives and the pronoun referring to *féağ*, are plural.

CHAPTER V.

THE PRONOUN.

I. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

1. Personal pronouns agree with the nouns they represent, in gender, number, and person; as *ip* *maic* an *bean* *í*, she is a good woman; *ip* *maic* an *féap* *é*, he is a good man; *ip* *móir* na *daome* *iaó*, they are great men.

2. A personal pronoun, or a possessive pronoun, which stands for a sentence or part of a sentence, is

third person singular masculine; as *ḃá m-béidíḃ ríḃ Eiréann an ḃap n-aḡaiḃ, naḃ bu ríḃḃḃe ḃóidḃ é*, “if the men of Erin were against you, they would not be the better of *it*,” (here the pronoun *é* stands for the sentence).

3. The accusative forms of the personal pronouns are often used as nominatives: always with *ir* (see Rule 18, p. 113), and with passive verbs (see Rule 20, p. 113); and sometimes with other verbs; as *máḃ maíḃ na leaḡa ríḃ, ar éiríon*, “‘if ye are the good physicians,’ says *he*.”

II. POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

1. A possessive pronoun is never used without a noun.

In English there are distinct forms of the possessive pronouns which can stand without nouns (*mine, thine, hers, &c.*), but there are no forms corresponding to these in Irish.

2. The possessive pronouns precede their nouns; as *mo máḃair*, my mother; *a ḡ-carḃad*, their chariot.

3. The possessives *mo*, my; *ḃo*, thy; and *a*, his; aspirate the initials of their nouns; as *mo ḃeann*, my head; *ḃo ḃor*, thy foot; *a méur*, his finger.

4. The possessive *a*, her, requires the initial of its noun in its primitive state (neither aspirated nor eclipsed), and if the initial be a vowel, it prefixes *h*; as *a máḃair*, her mother; *a h-aḃair*, her father.

5. The possessives *ár*, our; *ḃap*, your; and *a*, their; eclipse the initial consonants of their nouns (except *r*, on which they exert no influence), and prefix *n* to vowels; as *ár ḃ-tír*, our country; *ḃap m-ba*, your cows; *a n-aḃair*, their father.

6. Possessive pronouns amalgamated with prepositions (see p. 45) have the same influence over the initials of their nouns, as they have in their uncompounded state; as *dom époide*, to my heart; *óna o-tír*, from their country.

7. The manner of using the emphatic increase after the possessive pronouns has been already pointed out in Par. 3, page 45. For an additional Rule of possessives, see Rule 2, page 105.

III. RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. The relative follows its antecedent and precedes its verb; as an *τέ α řuibalpar*, the person who shall walk.

2. The relative aspirates the initial of its verb; as an *laoc a mapò an τ-αταc*, "the hero who slew the giant." To this the next rule is an exception.

3. When the relative *α* signifies "all that" (see p. 47) it eclipses the initial of its verb; as *α ð-řuil ó řhaillib buò ðeap*, "all that is from Galway southwards;" *o pėř α n-òubřamap*, "according to *what* we have said."

4. When the relative *α* is governed by a preposition, expressed or understood, and is followed immediately by a verb to which it is not the nominative, the initial of the verb (except *ř*) is eclipsed; as *α řė niò imoppa dá o-táimic α ðáp* ¹⁵³⁽⁹⁾ " (the following) is the circumstance, indeed, *from* ¹⁸⁰⁽⁸⁾ *which* came his death;" an *ðoic ina n-icòřř*, "the tent in which they used to eat;" *α ðuðairc řionn řo n-òionğnac (řic) řiò bé nóř α n-òionğnac ðiarmaid í*, "Finn said that he would make (peace) in whatever manner Diarmaid would make it" (here the preposition *ann* is understood.

ḡiō bé nóρ ann a n-ḡionḡnaō ḡiapaḡaḡ í, whatever the manner *in which* Diarmaid would make it.) (See next rule).

5. If, in the case stated in the last rule, the verb is in the past tense, with the particle *po* or *do*, the initial of the verb is not eclipsed, but aspirated (Pars. 1 and 4, p. 58); as áit ap éuit ḡapa ḡeapḡ, “the place in which fell Dara Dearḡ.”

6. The relative precedes the verb which governs it in the accusative (as in English); as an tíρ a ḡpaḡuiḡim, the country which I love.

7. As the relative has no inflection for case, the construction must determine whether the relative is the nominative to the verb which follows it, or is governed by it in the accusative; as an capa a ḡpaḡuiḡiō mé, the friend whom I love; an capa a ḡpaḡuiḡeap mé, the friend who loves me.

8. The relative is often omitted both in the nominative and in the accusative; as oḡlaoō ḡa munnḡip Nín mic péil éanic uaiō ḡo ḡpaē na Eipionn, “a youth of the people of Nin Mac Peil (who) came from him to view Erin.” An leabap po papiōb (Cambrenḡip) ḡo éuapaḡḡbaḡil Eipionn, “the book (which) Cambrensis wrote on the history of Erin.”

9. The relative *a* is often disguised by combination with other words and particles, especially with *po*, the mark of the past tense; as an tíρ óρ éanic me, “the country from which I came” (here óρ = ó a po); pláḡ lép maḡbaō noi míle óiōb, “a plague, by which were killed nine thousand of them” (here lép = le a po); an tíρ dá ḡ-éanic pé, the country to which he came (dá = do a); lá ḡap comópaō aonaē le piḡ Eipeann, “a day on which was convoked an assembly by the king of Erin” (ḡap = do a po); ní ḡeaḡ liompa ap

í-loinneap péin map eipic, "I do not think it little what I have named as an *eric*." (Cp=a po, in which a means "all that:" Par. 3, page 47.)

IV. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. The demonstrative pronouns follow their nouns or pronouns; as an peap rin, that man; cia h-é rin? who is that?

Exception:—When the verb ip in any of its forms is understood; as rúð bap g-cuid, "yonder (is) your meal;" ro an lá, this is the day.

2. If the noun be followed by one or more adjectives, the demonstrative pronoun comes last; as cia an peap ballac binnbriacrae úð? "Who is that freckled sweet-worded man?"

V. INTERROGATIVE AND INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

1. An interrogative pronoun comes first in the sentence; as cá b-puil mo leabap? where is my book? cia an laoc úð ap gualainn ghoill? "who is that hero at the shoulder of Goll?"

This rule holds good even when the interrogative is governed by a preposition, i.e., the preposition follows the interrogative that it governs; as cað ap tu? out of what (place art) thou? go de map tá tú? how do you do? (literally "like to what art thou?") cneud pá ap eipgeabap, "what for did ye rise?"

2. When uile precedes its noun, it means "every;" when it follows the noun it means "all;" as plán ón uile galap, "sound from every sickness;" do baead an cine daona uile go h-aon ocrap, "all the human race was drowned, all to (except) a single eight."

There are occasional exceptions; as onong ainbriorae ip na h-uile íubáilcib, "people ignorant in *all* virtues" (in this passage from Keating, uile means "all" though it precedes its noun).

CHAPTER VI.

THE VERB.

1. As a general rule the verb precedes its nominative; as *do ghluar Fergus*, "Fergus went;" *do claoideadh Mac Garraidh*, "Mac Garraidh was defeated." (See next Rule.)

2. When the nominative is a relative or an interrogative pronoun, it precedes the verb; and sometimes also in poetry, the nominative, even though a noun, precedes the verb; as *an te a fhuabalpar*, the person who will walk; *creud atá ann?* what is here? *Deoraidhe ríora gan ríe gan rop míanaid a d-tír 'r a n-dúiche*, "perpetual exiles without pause or rest, long-for their country and their native-home."

3. When the verb is transitive, i.e., when it governs the accusative (see Rule 9, p. 111), the usual order is verb, nominative, object; as *do aigeil Conchobhar Borach*, "Conchobhar addressed Borach;" *do líon Grainne an copn*, "Grainne filled the goblet."

4. But when the accusative is a relative or an interrogative pronoun, the usual order is, pronoun (or accusative), verb, nominative; as *an laoch a éonaire mé ané*, the hero *whom I saw* yesterday; *cad deir tú?* what sayest thou?

5. When the verb *tá* is used, the usual order is, verb, nominative, predicate; as *táid na peulca po-lonnach*, the stars are very bright.

6. When the verb *is*, expressed or understood, is used, the usual order is, verb, predicate, nominative; as *ba éinne a glór ná ceól na n-éun*, "*her voice*

was sweeter than the music of the birds:” ní paba uait an áit, “not (is) far from thee the place.”

Exception.—If the article is used before the predicate, or if the predicate is a proper name, the order is, verb, subject, predicate; as ip tupe an típ po-aoibinn, “thou art the delightful country;” ip mé Cian mac Cainte, “I am Cian, the son of Cainte:” an tu Fionn? “art thou Finn?”

7. The only cases in which there is agreement between the verb and its nominative, are (1) when the nominative and verb are both third person singular; (2) when a noun or pronoun in third plural has a verb in third plural, in accordance with Par. 9, p. 50.

It may be doubted whether (1) is a genuine case of agreement; and the general absence of agreement between verb and nominative is further exemplified in the following rule.

8. When two or more nouns, whether singular or plural, joined by a conjunction, are nominatives to one verb, the verb has the third person singular form; as do gluar breap agur na draoite rómpa, “Breas and the druids went forward.”

9. A transitive verb governs the noun or pronoun which is the object of the action, in the accusative case; as buail é, strike him; do cúpeadur Tuatha De Danann ceó draoideachta i n-a d-timéall féin, “the Tuatha de Dananns put a magical *mist* around themselves.”

10. The initial of a verb in the infinitive mood is aspirated, unless the aspiration is prevented by some special influence. For such an influence see Par. 2, p. 60.

11. The preposition *le* or *pe* before the infinitive active often gives it a passive signification; as (leabair eile) atá pe b-faicir i n-Eirinn, “(other books) which are *to be seen* in Erin.”

But in many such constructions the preposition expresses purpose, and the signification is active; as agur do m-bíó ollam pe dénam peille ar a céile, “and that they are ready *to do* treachery on each other.”

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12. The infinitive, even without the preposition *le*, has often a passive signification; as $\text{Fiacra mac Ailene tigearna Muğóorn do marbað}$, “Fiachra, son of Ailene, lord of Mourne, to be slain” (lit. “Fiachra, &c., to slay”): $\text{ağur an fear naç tiorpað (an cfor) rin uaið, a řpón do buain óna écann de}$, “and the man who would not pay that tribute from him, his nose *to be cut* off from his head.”

13. One verb governs another that follows it or depends upon it in the infinitive mood; as $\text{da m-bað naç paçpað clanna Mloirne d'iarraiað na ġ-caor rin}$, “if it were so that the Clann Morna *had not come to seek* those berries.”

The following very important rule was first enunciated by O'Donovan, and is given here in his own words (“Irish Grammar,” p. 387.)

14. “When the governed verb is one expressing motion or gesture, which does not govern the accusative, the sign *do* is never prefixed; as $\text{duðairc pé liom dul ġo Corcaig}$, he told me to go to Cork.”

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15. If the noun which is the object of a transitive verb in the infinitive mood follows the verb, it is in the genitive case; as $\text{tanğavar cablaç mór do óéanaim coguið}$, “a great fleet came *to make war*” (nom. cogað , war, gen. coguið); $\text{do mülleað élonne ġip}$, “to kill the children of Lir.”

16. A noun or pronoun which is the object of a transitive verb in the infinitive mood often precedes the verb, and in this case it is (not in the genitive, as in the last rule, but) in the accusative; as, $\text{ağur ipeað do ġnioð, dá éuaille do éur id-talman ağur ceann an t-řnáiçe do éeangal da ġaç cuaille óioð, ağur uball do éur air mullaç cuaille aca}$, “and it is what he used to do, *two poles to put* in the earth, and *the end* of a thread *to tie* to each pole of them, and *an apple to put* on the top of a pole of them.”

17. The active participle of a transitive verb governs the noun which is the object of the action, in the genitive case; as $\alpha\zeta$ $\beta\rho\upsilon\iota\tau\acute{\eta}\nu\epsilon\alpha\theta$ $\alpha\upsilon$ $\delta\iota\rho$, "smelting the gold" (lit. "smelting of the gold"); $\delta\omicron$ $\beta\acute{\iota}$ $\alpha\upsilon$ $\zeta\alpha\omicron\delta\alpha\lambda$ $\rho\omicron$ $\alpha\zeta$ $\mu\acute{\iota}\nu\alpha\theta$ $\rho\epsilon\omicron\lambda$, "this Gaodhal was teaching schools" (lit. "teaching of schools"); $\alpha\zeta$ $\tau\omicron\kappa\alpha\iota\lambda\tau$ $\nu\alpha$ $\tau\alpha\lambda\mu\alpha\upsilon$, "digging the ground."

18. The verb $\iota\rho$ in any of its forms expressed or understood, takes the accusative form of a personal pronoun as its nominative; as $\iota\rho$ $\acute{\iota}$ $\kappa\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\delta\epsilon\phi\alpha\theta$ $\delta\rho\omicron\mu\iota\zeta\epsilon$ $\rho\epsilon$ $\rho\epsilon\alpha\kappa\upsilon\rho$, "*it* is the opinion of some historians;" $\iota\rho$ $\mu\omicron\iota\kappa$ $\rho\iota\zeta$ $\zeta\omicron$ $\rho\acute{\epsilon}\rho\iota\upsilon\kappa\eta\epsilon\alpha\kappa$ $\iota\alpha\theta$, "*they* are truly sons of a king;" $\alpha\zeta\upsilon\rho$ $\rho\iota\alpha\rho\rho\alpha\iota\zeta\epsilon\alpha\rho$ $\alpha\upsilon$ $\rho\iota\zeta$ $\kappa\iota\alpha$ h - $\iota\alpha\theta$ $\rho\acute{\epsilon}\mu$, "and the king asks who *they* (are)."

19. The verb $\iota\rho$ is very often omitted, especially in negative and interrogative sentences, and in answers to questions; as $\beta\epsilon\alpha\tau\alpha$ $\alpha\upsilon$ $\rho\tau\alpha\rho\alpha\iota\theta\epsilon$ $\rho\acute{\epsilon}\rho\iota\upsilon\kappa\eta$, "truth (is) the food of the historian;" $\kappa\epsilon\alpha\kappa\eta$ $\text{D}\eta\iota\alpha\rho\mu\upsilon\delta\alpha$ $\text{U}\iota$ $\text{D}\eta\upsilon\iota\beta\eta\kappa\eta$ $\alpha\upsilon$ $\kappa\epsilon\alpha\kappa\eta$ $\acute{\upsilon}\theta$, "that head (is) the head of Diarmaid O'Duibhne;" $\kappa\iota\alpha$ $\tau\upsilon\rho\alpha$? $\mu\omicron\upsilon\iota$ $\iota\omicron\lambda\lambda\alpha\kappa$, "who (art) thou? I (am) Iollan;" $\alpha\upsilon$ $\rho\acute{\epsilon}\rho\omicron\upsilon$ $\rho\iota\kappa$, "whether (is) that true? *ní* $\mu\omicron\upsilon\iota$, "(it is) not I."

20. A verb in the passive voice takes the accusative form of a personal pronoun as its nominative; as $\delta\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\kappa\tau\alpha\rho$ $\acute{\epsilon}$, it is done; $\beta\upsilon\alpha\iota\lambda\tau\epsilon\alpha\rho$ $\iota\alpha\theta$ they are struck.

CHAPTER VII.

PREPOSITIONS.

1. A simple preposition governs the dative (including the ablative, for which there is no distinct

inflection); as *éáimic pé go Corcaig*, he came to Cork; *aḡ corḡ an τ-rléibe*, at the foot of the mountain; *airimib cuib do na h-úgḡarab*, "some of the authors reckon." (See next rule for exception.)

2. The preposition *ib* generally governs the accusative in the singular, and the dative in the plural; as *ib Corcaé aḡur lúimneac*, between Cork and Limerick; *ib na cóigeadab*, "between the provinces."

3. The prepositions *ann*, *go*, *iar*, *ria*, *le* or *pe*, and *tar*, take *r* before *an*, the article, the *r* being sometimes joined with the preposition and sometimes with the article; as *annr an leabap* or *ann ran leabap*, in the book; *leir an b-peap*, with the man. (See par. 7, page 17.)

4. The compound prepositions govern their nouns in the genitive; as *do ruḡ an tonna rir a n-aḡaib an énuic*, "he brought the tun with him against the hill;" *a b-riabnuire b-peap n-Éirionn*, "in presence of the men of Erin;" *do ḡluarpeadar clann Tuireann pompa d'ionnruide an éata*, "the children of Tuireann went forwards towards the battle."

The following prepositions, *éum*, towards; *dála*, as to; *déir*, after; *iomcúra*, as to; *meapḡ* or *ameapḡ*, amongst; *péir*, according to; and *timéioll*, about, although having the form of simple prepositions, are in reality compound, and take their nouns in the genitive. See end of Par. 3, p. 88.

As a compound preposition consists of a noun governed by a simple preposition, it is in reality the noun-part of the compound preposition that governs the noun in the genitive, in accordance with Rule 1, page 95: thus the expression above, *a n-aḡaib an énuic*, is literally "in the face of the hill," where *énuic* is governed in the genitive by *aḡaib*, face; and so of the others.

5. The simple prepositions, except *do*, *de*, *gan*, and *ib*, generally cause eclipsis in singular nouns when the article is used; as *ó'n ḡ-cnoc rin*, "from

that hill;" aḡ an m-baile na h-impe ísár, "at the town of the island in the west." (See pages 17, 18.)

6. The simple prepositions generally cause aspiration when the article is not expressed; as ar̄ bapp an époinn, "on the top of the tree;" ó múraib̄ na Teampac̄, "from the ramparts of Tara."

Exception 1: a or í, iar, and ḡo (when it means "with") cause eclipsis without the article; as a m-baile aḡa chiac̄, in Baile-atha-cliaith (Dublin); iar n-dísinn, "after the deluge."

Exception 2: aḡ, le, and sometimes ḡo, cause no change in the initial, and ḡan may either aspirate or not; as plán le Maiḡ, "farewell to (the river) Maigue;" ó'n t-Sionunn roip̄ ḡo páirp̄ḡe, "from the Shannon east to the sea."

7. When a simple preposition ending in a vowel comes before the possessive a (whether it signifies *his*, *her*, or *their*), the letter n is inserted between the vowels; as tpe n-a báraib̄, "through his hands;" an lá ḡo n-a lán t-poillpe, "the day with its abundant light."

Except after do and de; as tabair péup dá éapall give grass to his horse; bam ḡeuḡ d'á ḡ-crann, take a branch from their tree.

Before any other word beginning with a vowel, the letter h is usually inserted after these prepositions; as do éuaib̄ pe ḡo h-Albam, he went to Alban (Scotland).

PART IV.

I D I O M S .

AN idiom, in the sense in which it is used here, may be defined:—An expression that has acquired by usage a certain meaning, which becomes lost in a word-for-word translation into another language; so that in order to convey the true meaning in that other language, the form of expression must be changed.

Thus, “*ṭá an leabap aḡ an bume*” is an idiom, for its sense is lost in the word-for-word translation, “the book is at the man;” and in order to convey the true meaning, the English expression must be changed to “the man has the book.”

Idioms constitute one of the chief difficulties in learning any language; and the student is recommended to master this Part, in which the principal idioms of the Irish language are explained and illustrated.

1. The Infinitive governing Possessive Pronouns.

The infinitive of a transitive verb governs its object in the genitive (Syntax, Rule 15, p. 112). When the object, instead of being a noun, is a personal pronoun, then, according to the analogy of the Rule quoted, it should be in the genitive case. But the genitive of a personal pronoun is a possessive pronoun; and possessive pronouns precede the words they refer to; so that the pronoun which represents the object of the action, is a possessive, and precedes the infinitive, influencing its initial as if it were a noun (see Syntax, p. 106, Rules 3, 4, 5). This gives rise to idiomatic expressions like the following, which are of very frequent occurrence.

English.	Irish.	Contracted to.	
To strike {	me,	<i>do mo bualað,</i>	<i>dom' bualað.</i>
	thee,	<i>do do bualað,</i>	<i>doð' bualað.</i>
	him,	<i>do a bualað,</i>	<i>dá bualað.</i>
	her,	<i>do a bualað,</i>	<i>dá bualað.</i>
	us,	<i>do ár m-bualað,</i>	<i>dár m-bualað.</i>
	you,	<i>do úr m-bualað,</i>	(not contracted)
them,	<i>do a m-bualað,</i>	<i>dá m-bualað.</i>	

These may be translated literally, "to my striking," "to their striking," &c.

A like construction prevails in the case of a transitive participle: $\alpha\zeta$ α $\beta\upsilon\alpha\lambda\alpha\theta$, striking him: $\alpha\zeta$ α $\beta\upsilon\alpha\lambda\alpha\theta$, striking her: $\alpha\zeta$ $\acute{\alpha}\rho$ m - $\beta\upsilon\alpha\lambda\alpha\theta$, striking us, &c. In this construction the participle may itself be governed in the genitive case by a noun:— $\acute{\epsilon}\tau\acute{\iota}\mu\iota\epsilon$ $m\acute{\iota}\alpha\eta$ α $m\alpha\rho\beta\epsilon\tau\alpha$ $\delta\alpha\mu$ $\rho\acute{\epsilon}\iota\eta$, "a desire to kill them, has come to me" (lit. "a desire of the killing of them," or "of their killing.")

2. Compound Prepositions governing Possessive Pronouns.

A compound preposition governs the genitive (Rule 4, p. 114); and when the governed word is not a noun but a personal pronoun, this last becomes a possessive, and goes before the noun-part of the compound preposition, giving rise to idiomatic phrases, corresponding with those quoted in last Idiom. Example: $\alpha\upsilon\tau$ $\rho\omicron\eta$, for the sake of; $\alpha\upsilon\tau$ α $\rho\omicron\eta$, for his sake; $\alpha\upsilon\tau$ $\delta\upsilon\tau$ $\rho\omicron\eta$, for your sake, &c. $\Delta\omicron$ $\acute{\epsilon}\upsilon\alpha\iota\theta$ $\Delta\iota\alpha\rho\mu\alpha\iota\theta$ $\delta\acute{\alpha}$ h - $\acute{\epsilon}\rho$, Diarmaid went after her: $\tau\acute{\alpha}\iota\mu\iota\epsilon$ $\tau\iota\eta\eta\epsilon\alpha\rho$ $\omicron\rho\pi\alpha$ $\rho\epsilon\mu$, $\alpha\zeta\upsilon\rho$ $\alpha\rho$ α $\rho\eta\omicron\theta\tau$ 'n- α n - $\delta\iota\alpha\iota\theta$, "sickness came upon themselves, and on their posterity after them."

A similar construction often occurs with the compound adverbs. Example: $\tau\alpha\rho$ $\alpha\upsilon\tau$, backwards; $\delta\omicron$ $\acute{\epsilon}\upsilon\alpha\iota\theta$ $\rho\acute{\epsilon}$ $\tau\alpha\rho$ α $\alpha\upsilon\tau$, he went backwards; $\delta\omicron$ $\acute{\epsilon}\upsilon\alpha\iota\theta$ $\rho\acute{\iota}$ $\tau\alpha\rho$ α h - $\alpha\upsilon\tau$, she went backwards; $\delta\omicron$ $\acute{\epsilon}\upsilon\alpha\iota\theta$ $\rho\iota\alpha\theta$ $\tau\alpha\rho$ α n - $\alpha\upsilon\tau$, they went backwards, &c.

3. To die.

"To die," is very often expressed in Irish by a phrase meaning "to find death:" the verb $\rho\alpha\zeta$, find, being used for this purpose, in its various forms; as, $\alpha\eta$ $\delta\alpha\rho\alpha$ $\beta\lambda\iota\alpha\zeta\alpha\eta$ $\delta\acute{\alpha}$ $\acute{\epsilon}\rho$ $\rho\eta\eta$ $\rho\upsilon\alpha\iota\rho$ $I\rho\iota\alpha\lambda$ $\beta\acute{\alpha}\rho$, "the second year after that Irial found death;" $\alpha\zeta\upsilon\rho$ $m\acute{\alpha}\rho$ $\alpha\eta\eta$ $\alpha\tau\acute{\alpha}$ α n - $\delta\acute{\alpha}\eta$ $\delta\alpha\mu\eta$ $\beta\acute{\alpha}\rho$ δ ' $\acute{\epsilon}\acute{\alpha}\zeta\alpha\iota$, "and if it be here that it is in fate for me death to find" (i. e., "that it is fated for me to die.")

There is, however, a single verb δ ' $\acute{\epsilon}\upsilon\theta$, meaning to die, but it is not used so often as the above. The following example exhibits both forms:— Δ $\delta\epsilon\iota\rho$ $\epsilon\upsilon\mu\theta$ $\delta\omicron$ $n\alpha$ $\rho\epsilon\alpha\eta$ $u\zeta\delta\alpha\rho\alpha\iota\theta$ $\zeta\upsilon\rho$ ab α $n\zeta\lambda\epsilon\alpha\eta\eta$ $\delta\alpha$ $l\omicron\acute{\epsilon}\alpha$ $\rho\upsilon\alpha\iota\rho$ $n\alpha\omicron\mu\eta$ $\beta\alpha\delta$ $\rho\eta\iota\zeta$ $\beta\acute{\alpha}\rho$; $\beta\iota\theta$ $\zeta\omicron$ n - $ab\rho\alpha\iota\theta$ $\delta\rho\upsilon\eta\zeta$ $\omicron\iota\lambda\epsilon$ $\zeta\upsilon\rho\alpha\beta$ $\alpha\eta\eta$

Αρῶμαα δ'εὐζ ρέ, "some of the old authors say that it is in Glendalough St. Patrick found death, although another party say that it is in Armagh he died."

4. Nominative Absolute.

What is called the nominative absolute in English is expressed in Irish by the preposition *air* (on), or *iar* (after), placed before the participle, and the preposition *do* (to) before the noun; which will be understood from the following examples:—*air m-beiṣ aṯa páda do Chopmac aḡ a b-peiṣiōm*, "Cormac, having been a long time watching them" (lit. "on being a long time to Cormac a-watching of them"): *aḡur air m-beiṣ ollainḡ don lunnḡ*, "and the ship being ready" (lit. "and on being ready to the ship"); *aḡur air n-bul a lunnḡ dōib*, "and they having gone into a ship:" (lit. "and on going into a ship to them"): *iar m-beiṣ tḡean ip an tḡr dōib*, "they having grown strong in the country" (lit. "after being strong in the country to them").

5. To have no help for a thing,

The Irish phrase corresponding to this is "to have no strength (*neart*) on a thing:" the "having" being expressed in accordance with Idiom 34, p. 130. *Ní b-puil neart aḡur air an nō rḡm*, I have no help for that thing—I cannot help that (lit. "there is to me no strength on that thing"). *Aḡur a dubairt ḡrámne naḡ raiḡ neart aice péim air*, "and Grainne said that she had no help for it" (or "could not help it," "could not have prevented it"). Sometimes *léiḡear*, remedy or cure, is used in the same way as *neart*.

6. To cause a thing to be done.

To cause a thing to be done, to have it done, to see that it is done, to order it to be done, is often expressed in Irish by *do éur* (or *do tábairt*) *pá deapa*, "to put (or bring, or give), under notice." *Aḡur po éur Miodhac pá n-deapa úir Inpe Tuile do éur púib*, "and Miodhach caused the mould (or soil) of Inis Tuile to be placed under you:" *do ruḡ (ríḡ) bḡeac báir air an m-bḡeiceain*, *aḡur tḡḡ pá deapa a époacā* " (the king), passed sentence of death on the judge, and had him hanged" ("put under notice him to hang," or "his hanging").

7. Number of individuals of which a company is composed.

The number of individuals of which any collection of persons or things is made up, is often inserted, in the nominative form, in a narrative sentence, without any syntactical connexion with the rest of the sentence. Ἀδῦρ εἰκοσιε ἑκατὸν ἑξήκοντα ἀρμαράσ, καὸσατ καὸρρεσασ, ὁ Σηιοῦ βυἰῶβ Ὀειρῆ, "and Lir set out on the morrow, fifty chariot-men, from Shee Bove Derg" (i.e., *with* fifty chariots): ἀδῦρ εἰκοσιε βῶββ Ὀειρῆ, ναοὶ εἰσὸν ῤεῦσεσ, δα ν-ἰονηρῤυἰῆε; "and Bove Derg came, twenty-nine hundred men, towards them."

This is like the English:—"The duke began his march next morning, 20,000 strong."

8. Passive Verbs used impersonally.

A passive verb is often used impersonally; as ἡδῶρα εἰζαἰνη ἀμαῦ, ἀδῦρ νὶ λαἰραρ ῤυἰλυῆσ ὀητ, "come forth to us and no one will dare to wound thee:" (literally, "and *it will not be dared* [to put] wounding on thee).

This form of expression is of very frequent occurrence in the older narrative writings:—thus instead of "they advance; they plunge into the (river) Crond," the writer expresses himself in this way:—"it is advanced; it is plunged into the Crond."

9. Nominatives before Infinitives and Participles.

Instead of the usual assertive construction, consisting of a verb with its nominative (noun or pronoun), the following construction is often adopted:—the verb is put in the infinitive or participial form, and the subject (whether noun or personal pronoun) is placed before it, the pronoun being in the accusative form (but whether the noun is nominative or accusative cannot be determined, as there is no distinction of form); as ἡρ ἀἠλαῖδ βὶ Ναιρὶ ἀδῦρ Ὀείρδρε, ἀδῦρ ἀν ἔενεῖαἠἠ ἔταρρα, ἀδῦρ ἰαδ ἀῆ ἠἠρητ ἠἠρη, "it is in this manner Naisi and Deirdre were (seated), and the Cenn-chaimh (a chess board) between them, *and they playing on it*;" ἡρ ἀἠλαῖδ δῶ βὶ Κοῦῆσ, ἀδῦρ ἔ ἀῆ ῤεαρῆσ, "it is thus Cobhthach was, *and he pining away*;" εἠρηῖρ ῤεεἠα ἡῶ βἠῆἠἠδ ἔ ῤῆἠ δῶ βῆῖδ ἠἠἠ ῤἠ, "he sends word to Blaid, *he himself to be there*" (i.e., "that he himself was there").

This form of expression is often adopted even when the verb or participle is (not expressed but) understood; as *do óuip* (an óú) a ceann a n-uét *Óhiarmuða a gup é ina óbda* “(the hound) put her head in the breast of Diarmaid, *and he in his sleep.*”

10. One person meeting another.

“Donall met Fergus” is often expressed in Irish in the following way:—*Do carað Fergur ar Doínall*; literally “Fergus was met (or turned) on Donall.” *Do carað AoiBell na Craige léite opumh*, “we met Eevel of Craglea” (lit. “Eevel of Craglea was met [or turned] on us”): *cia carraide oim aét ptauð-bean*, “whom should I meet but the fair woman” (“who should be met on me”).

The same idea is expressed by the verb *capla*, happened: *agur capla oílaó oppéa ar m-bozáó*, “and they met a youth on the moor” (lit. “and a youth happened on [or to] them”): *capalluð go Sliab Mhí go capla banba go n-a ópaioið oppa ann*, “they travel to Slieve Mish until they met Banba with her druids there” (“until Banba with her druids happened on[or to] them there”).

11. Although: Although not.

Óion go or *Óion gur* has two opposite meanings which can only be distinguished by the general sense of the passage: sometimes it means “although” (or “although that”), and sometimes “although not.”

Although:—*a Fhinn, ar Oígar, Óion gur foigre mo gáol duitre ná do Óhiarmuð O’Óhuibne*, “‘O Finn, says Oscar, ‘although my relationship with thee is nearer than to Diarmaid O’Duibhne.’”

Although not:—*do bépum cómaipe maic óib, a Chlann Uírmí, Óion go n-dénar lib í*, “I shall give a good counsel to you, O sons of Usna, though it will not be done by you;” *Óion gur céarpó mná an nfó rin*, “*although* that proceeding would *not* be the business of a woman.”

12. To be able.

To be able to do a thing is expressed in different ways. The most usual is by phrases of the type, *ip péidip le*, “it is possible with;” as *ip péidip l’om a óéanað*, I can do it (lit. “it is possible with me to do it:” see Idiom 1.)

Another, and more idiomatic way, is by the verb *capim*. “I

come," in its various moods and tenses; and with this verb "I can do," or "I am able to do," is expressed by "it comes with me to do;" as *muna* *ð-tigeað* *riþ* *an* *éalleac* *d'amar*, "unless he would be able to strike the hag" (lit. "unless it would come with him the hag to strike"); *ac* *t* *niop* *doilge* *riun* *ma* *riun* *map* *acáð* *ár* *ð-tiþ* *féinnide* *ceangailte* *inár* *b-riaðnuipe*, *aþur* *nað* *ð-tig* *riun* *rþaoileað* *ðsob*, "and we think more grievous than that, how our three champions are bound in our presence, and that we are not able to free them:" *ni* *éuipéann* *ualað* *oppáinn* *nað* *ð-tig* *linn* *a* *iomcáþ*, "he puts not a burden on us that we are not able to bear."

Sometimes the verb *tá* or *ip* is used instead of *tig*, and also the preposition *aþ* instead of *le*; as *ó* *nað* *liom* *dul* *ón* *g-contabairt* *ro*, "since I cannot escape from this danger" ("since it is not with me to go from this danger": here *ip* is understood): *ó* *nað* *b-puil* *dul* *uað* *aþum*, "since I cannot escape from him" ("since it is not with me to go from him:" here *tá* and *aþ* are used, as in "possession:" Idiom 34.

13. One of a pair.

One of a pair is often expressed by the word *leat*, half: *leat-éop*, one foot (lit. half-foot). In this compound the word *leat* is used adjectively, so that *leat-éop* means, not half of a foot, but a half-foot (i.e., a foot which is itself a half, i.e., half of a pair). So also *leat-þúil*, one eye, *leat-taob*, one side, &c. *Ip* *amlað* *do* *ð* *an* *riþ* *riun* *aþur* *leat-lain* *arþið* *arþ*, "it is thus that king was, and one hand of silver on him."

14. To be alone.

The word *aonap*, which the dictionaries now interpret as meaning "alone," was originally a concrete numeral noun like *triúr*, *cúigeap*, &c. (p. 39), and meant "one person;" and this meaning it retains to some extent in its present application:—*do* *riubal* *mé* *a'm* *aonap*, I walked alone (lit. "I walked in my one person" [see Idiom 42]: or "I walked as one person"); *do* *riubal* *tú* *að'* *aonap*, thou walkedst alone: *do* *riubal* *rí* *n-a* *h-aonap*, "she walked alone," &c.; *am* *aonap* *peal* *a* *riubal* *bíðeap*, "alone, of a time, walking I was."

Another way of saying in Irish "he is alone" is "he is with himself:" *tá* *mé* *liom* *pém*, I am alone ("I am with myself"): *tá* *tú* *leat* *pém*, thou art alone: *tá* *riað* *leo* *pém*, they are alone: *tá* *mo* *máirín* *'n-a* *coblað*, *aþur* *nipe* *liom* *pém*, "my mother is asleep, and I am alone."

15. One thing given for another.

When you give or take, sell or buy, one thing for another, it is expressed in Irish by saying you give it, &c., *on* that other, the preposition *air* being used. *Do tuag ré trí ba air an g-capall rin*, he gave three cows for that horse: *air* *Eirne ní 'neópaínn cia h-í*, "for Erin I would not tell who she is" ('neópaínn for inneópaínn: see p. 63).

In this sense, the preposition *air* is set before the noun of price: *do ceannuirgear an bó bán rin air ré púint*, I bought that white cow for six pounds: *ní h-iongna ar Cormac, óir ír maíe an luac tuagar uirpe*, "'No wonder,' says Cormac, 'for good is the price I gave for it.'"

16. Debt.

The fact that Donall owes Fergus money, or that Donall is under any obligation to pay money to Fergus, is expressed by saying, "Fergus has money on Donall," the preposition *air* being used before the name of the debtor, and the act of "having" being expressed by *tá* and *aḡ* as in Idiom 34. *Tá trí púint aḡ Fergur air Doínnall*, Donall owes three pounds to Fergus: *tá bean eile a n-Éodáill a b-puill aici coróim air*, there is another woman in Youghal to whom he owes a crown" ("to whom is a crown on him"): *ír aúlaib do bí an ríḡ ro, aḡur eíor cám móp tnom aḡ Fómhoraiḡ ar Tuata Dé Danann re n-a linn*, "it is how this king was, and (that) the Fomorians had a great heavy tribute and rule over the Tuatha De Dananns during his time" ("a great heavy tribute and rule was with the Fomorians on the Tuatha De Dananns").

17. Asking, entreating, &c.

To ask, request, entreat, or demand of a person, is expressed by "to ask, &c., *on* that person:" *íarr air Dhia na ḡrára rin*, "ask of God those graces."

18. Sensation, suffering, &c.

That a person is hungry, thirsty, cold, afraid, sick, &c., is expressed in Irish by saying that hunger, thirst, cold, fear, sickness, &c., is *on* him, the preposition *air* being used: *tá puacḡ cḡm* (cold is on me), I am cold; *ná bíob eāḡla opt* (let not fear be on thee) be not afraid: *do bí tapḡ móp air Sheaḡan* (great thirst was on John), John was very thirsty: *caḡ*

é rin ort? (what is that on thee?) what ails you? A cúiple mo énoiðe creud f an ðruaim rin ort? "O pulse of my heart, what is that frown on thee?"

19. One person entertaining feelings (of love, hatred, &c.) towards another.

That Donall entertains certain feelings towards Fergus is expressed by saying that Donall *has* such feelings *on* Fergus; the preposition ar being used before "Fergus," and the act of "having" being expressed by τά and αḡ, as in idiom 34:—ní mó an cion ro bá αḡ Aonghur ortpa má an cion ro bá αḡ muintir Aonghura ar mác an reáctaire, ḡo raib formad mór ar τ'áctair pá n-a cionn rin, "not greater was the affection Aonghus felt for thee than the affection the people of Aonghus felt for the son of the steward, so that thy father felt great jealousy on that account" (lit. "not greater was the affection which was with Aonghus on thee, so that great jealousy was on thy father on the head of that:" see Idiom 32).

Where the agent is not specified, a similar form of expression is retained: you are loved, is expressed by love is on you: you are esteemed, by estimation is on you, &c.: τά meap αḡur cion mór ar Orcaḡ (great esteem and love are on Oscar), Oscar is greatly *esteemed and loved*.

20. To know : to know a person.

To know is usually expressed in Irish by the phrase knowledge is with me, I have knowledge; and to know a person by "to have or to give knowledge on a person:" "αḡur an b-puil a fíor aḡad féin, a Fhinn?" 'ní b-puil,' ar Fíonn: "do you know it, O Finn? 'I do not,' says Finn" (lit., is its knowledge with you, O Finn? It is not, says Finn): an áil leat fíor d'fáḡail? do you wish to know? ("is it a desire with you knowledge to get?"): bioḡ a fíor aḡat, a leuḡcór, "know O reader" ("be its knowledge with thee, O reader"): (strangers are seen coming towards Finn and his party), ro fíarraiḡ Fíonn do éac an b-tuḡa-ban aéne orra, "Finn asked of the others did they know them" (lit. "did they put knowledge on them"): αḡur tuḡairre aéne orm, "and thou knewest me" (lit. "and thou didst put knowledge on me").

21. To part from, to separate from.

To separate from a person is expressed in Irish by "to separate *with* a person," the preposition *le* or *pe* being used: much in the same manner as we say in English, "I parted with him:" *peapadap péim aḡur Óiarmaid pe n-a ééile*, "they themselves and Diarmaid separated from each other:" *do pcar pé rinn*, "he separated from us;" *pcap Orpap le Óiarmaid*, "Oscar separated from Diarmaid:" *do pcar nup*, "he separated from him;" *aḡ Cupraé Cill'-dara do pcarap le ḡrað mo énoiðe*, "at the Curragh of Kildare I parted from the 'love of my heart.'"

22. However great, however good, however brave, &c.

Da placed before some abstract nouns gives a meaning which, though it is well understood in practical use, has puzzled grammarians to analyse and explain, and which will be best understood by a few examples. From the adjective *álainn*, fine or beautiful, is formed *áilne* or *áille*, fineness, beauty; and *da áilne* or *da áille*, means "however fine," "how fine soever." Examples:—*Ní b-puil pionúr dá meub, naé b-tuil-lob*, "there is no punishment however great that they do not deserve:" *an tpeap ḡeir, ḡan comraḡ aoméir dá éréiri an calmáin d'obað*, "the third injunction, not to refuse single combat to any man on earth, however mighty:" *deáinan ná diabál dá éréire lám*, "demon or devil, however mighty of hand."

23. Both one and another: both these and those.

Both, in such phrases as "both men and women," is often expressed in Irish by the preposition *idup*, between; as *bainp-rið Óia páraim diob ann ḡaé roðap d'á b-tuḡ-drið idup éeill, ceapraðais, aḡur conaé ḡaoḡalta*, "God will exact an account from them in every advantage He has given to them *between* understanding, senses, and worldly prosperity:" *cúḡ-míle idup peparib aḡur mnáib*, five thousand, between men and women (i.e. both men and women, or reckoning men and women).

24. To overtake.

To overtake a person is often expressed by "to bear on a person," the verb *beip*, bear, being used with the preposition

air. Examples:—*Fáðbam an tulaó ro ar eagla go m-bearrað Aonghus an Úhroza oirunn*, “let us leave this hill for fear that Aonghus of the Brugh would overtake us:” *leanur air a lonz go réimdípeaó iad do’n Mhúman*, *go ruz orra aó Solcóid*, “he follows them on their track directly to Munster, so that he overtook them at Solchoid.” *go naó fúizpíóir an fonn rin nó go m-beirpeáó Maicpa Síde orra*, “that they might not leave that territory till the fairy cavalcade should overtake them:” *fanpaópa leat ar an látaip ro nó go m-beirur orra arís*, “I will wait for thee at this place till thou overtake me again:” *gaó aon air a m-béarrannri*, “every one whom I would overtake” (“every one on whom I would bear”).

25. To win a game on a person.

To win a game on a person is expressed by “to put a game on him:” *aóur do éóó Oirín an fear rin*, *aóur ro éur an cluicé ar Fhionn*, “and Oisín moved that (chess-) man and won a game on Finn:” *aóur ní ruóamar an báipe ar a éile*, “and we did not win the goal on each other” (i.e. neither of us won the goal on the other.”

26. To think long, short, well of, ill of: to think hot, cold, hateful, &c.

Such phrases as “it seemed long to him,” “he thought it long,” are expressed by the verb *ip* and the preposition *le*: *ip fáda liom* (“it is long with me”), it seems long to me, I think it long. *Aóur do bo fáda le na bhráitrib do bi Úrian uaéa*, “and his brothers thought it long that Brian was away from them” (“it was long with his brothers, &c.”): *ip olc linn ar bean ríoc*, “we think bad of what has happened to thee” (“it is evil with us:” *ar* = *a ro*, and *a* means “all that:” see p. 47): *tuizimri naó ionmum leatpa me rém*, “I understand that thou dost not love me” (“that not beloved with thee am I myself”).

Observe the difference in meaning conveyed by the two prepositions *le* and *do*: *ip maic é do’n b-fear rin*, it is advantageous to that man (whether he thinks it so or not): *ip maic é leip an b-fear rin*, that man thinks it advantageous (whether it is really so or not). The following example shows both forms:—*ba maic liom ruabail aóe mop maic óam é*, I wished to walk, but it was not good for me.

27. To wish for: to like: to be glad of: to prefer.

After the same manner, a desire, wish, liking for, &c., is expressed by such words as *mian*, desire; *aic*, pleasure; *áil*, will or pleasure, &c.: *ip áill liom ríor d'páđáil*, I wish to know ("it is a desire with me knowledge to get"): *do éuirpinn péim rúil an éaic rin ad h-uét a n-ionad do rúil, ar fear d'iođ: do b'aic liom rin, ar an d'oirreoir,* "I would put the eye of that cat in thy lap in place of thy eye," says a mau of them. 'I would like that,' says the door-keeper."

The word *féarr*, better, is used in the same way to express preference: *ip féarr liom do deapb'rácair ná éura*, I prefer thy brother to thyself: I would rather have thy brother than thyself (lit. "thy brother is better with me," &c.); *do b'féarr le b'riđiđ leab'ar maic ná airgead*, Brigid would prefer a good book to money (lit. "a good book would be better with Brigid," &c.). The following example shows the application of both *mian* and *féarr*:—*Ní h-é ip mian leip an uđ'ar (ní mo, ní h-é ip mian liom-ra) tu do b'neugan; aét ip é dob' féarr leip rin (ađur liom-ra) do éroiđe do řealđuđad:* "it is not what the author wishes (neither is it my wish) to amuse thee (*tu do b'neugan*) but it is what he would prefer (and I also) to possess thy heart."

Féarr followed by *le* expresses mental preference as shown above: but *féarr* followed by *do* is equivalent to the English expression "better for," "better that," &c. *Ip féarr dompa anoir, ar luđ, ríor na h-eapca úđ do éabairc óaiđ.* *Ip féarr éana, ar iad'ar,* 'it is better for me now,' says Lugh, 'a knowledge of that *eric* (fine) to give you.' 'It is better indeed,' say they."

28. To think little of—much of—to grudge.

Similar to the preceding is the use of the words *beađ* and *mór* (little and much) in several idiomatic phrases, which occur very frequently, and which will be best understood by the following examples:—*Ip mór liom an luac rin*, I think that price large ("that price is large with me"): *óip dá m-beic mac ađunne iona řuiđe pompa, n'íor beađ leo do éuir d'ár marb'ad é,* "for if (even) a child of us would be sitting ("in his sitting:" see Idiom 42) before them, they would not deem it (too) little cause to kill us" (lit. "it would not be with them a small [thing] for a cause to kill us:" for *d'ár marb'ad*: see Idiom 1): *d'ar mo b'ria'ar ar*

Nairi ní beḡ linne rin uair, “ ‘by my word,’ says Naisi, ‘we do not think that small from thee.’ ”

The two expressions *ir mór le* and *ní beḡ le* (it is much with, it is not little with) are used to express the idea of unwillingness or grudging: *ir mór liom aon pínḡín do éabairt do*, I think it much—I grudge—to give one penny to him: the very same idea is expressed by *ní beḡ liom aon pínḡín*, &c., I think it not little—I grudge—one penny, I think one penny enough, &c. The two reverse expressions (*ní mór le—ir beḡ le*) are used to express willingness—not grudging, &c.: *ní mór liom na trí ba ro do éabairt do*, I do not think it much—I am quite willing—I do not grudge—to give him these three cows; which might also be expressed by saying, *ir beḡ liom*, &c.—I think it little—I would give more, I would have more, I would want more; I am willing—I do not grudge, &c.—*do beirimid ár m-briachar, ar riad, nac beḡ linn a m-beupamí go Fionn díob*, “ ‘we give our word,’ said they ‘we think it not small—we grudge—what (a = all that: see p. 47) we shall bring of them to Finn.’ ” (See Mr. Standish O’Grady’s note, in the “Pursuit of Diarmaid and Grainne,” p. 140.)

When *mór* and *beḡ* are used with the preposition *do*, they give the idea of enough or not enough *for* a person: *níor beḡ do* (*marbhad bar n-airpead*) *mar eiric uairpe*, (the killing of your fathers) is not small to him—is enough for him—should suffice for him—as an *eric* (fine) from you: *níor beḡ duit a ba do bpeit ó Fhionn*, “it was not little for you—it was enough for you—to take away his cows from Finn.”

29. Woe to.

Ir mairḡ don b-peap rin, woe to that man: *a mairḡ do’n d’pungḡ ḡoirpeap do’n olc marc*, “woe to those who call evil good.” Expressions of this kind are sometimes elliptical; as, *ir mairḡ nac n-déanann comairle deaḡ-ríná*, “woe [to him] who doeth not the counsel of a good wife” (lit. “it is woe who doeth not,” &c.).

30. So .. as: as .. as.

When these “correspondent conjunctions” are expressed in Irish, the second one is usually translated either by *aḡur*, “and,” or by *le*, “with:” *aḡur a dubairt ría an tan do díob a mac com’ arpaicta aḡur go lionpad a meup an iob*, “and he said to her when his son should be so grown (com’ arpaicta) as that his finger would fill the ring” (lit.

“so grown *and* that his finger,” &c.): *do bí a pleag cón peanap le mol muillinn*, “his spear was as thick as the shaft of a mill” (lit. “as thick *with*.”)

Aḡur follows *amlaib* or *amla* (thus, so, in this manner), much in the same way as it follows *cón*; and in this use it sometimes answers very nearly to “*viz.*” *ar amlaib do ruar Naisi acap Déirdre, acap an Cennchaemh etarra*, “it is thus he found Naisi and Déirdre, *and* the *Cennchaemh* (a kind of chess-board) between them.” (Meaning, “it was thus he found them, *viz.*, with the *Cennchaemh* between them.”)

31. Every other day: every second day: every alternate day.

Phrases like these are often expressed in Irish by the indefinite pronoun *ḡac*, followed by the preposition *le* or *pe*. *ḡac le Doimnac aḡ dul cum ceampoil*, going to the church every other (or every alternate) Sunday: *na trí ríḡte rin do Thuataib De Danann do bí i b-plaictioḡ Eireann ḡac pe m-bliagam*, “these three kings of the Tuatha De Danann were in the sovereignty of Erin every other year” (i.e. each for a year).

32. The Head.

The word for *head* is used in Irish, as it is in most languages, in a great variety of idiomatic phrases. Some have been already noticed among the compound propositions; and these and others will be understood from the following examples.

A ḡ-ceann bliadna, at the end of a year: *do bí riab a ḡ-ceann na raiḡe*, they were at the end of the field. *A dubairt Naisi le h-Ardan dul ar ceann Ferguḡ*, “Naisi said to Ardan to go for Fergus” (“to go on the head of Fergus”): *pillre ar a ḡ-ceann*, “turn thou back for them” (“on their head”). *O naḡ liom dul ón ḡ-contaḡairt ro am ceann*, “since I am not able to escape from this danger [that lies] before me” (*am ceann*, “in my head” = before me). *Raḡpab ad ceann, a Fhinn, aḡur a ḡ-ceann na Féinne*, “I will go to thee (or before thee), O Finn, and to the Feni” (“in thy head and in the head of the Feni”). *Acap beiriḡ buaib acap bennaḡtam dá ceann*, “and bear ye victory and blessing on its account” (*dá ceann*, “from its head”). *Tar ceann ḡur raḡil an toiceaḡ naḡ raib baogal ar bíḡ ar péim*, “although the rich man thought that there was no danger at all to (i.e. of) himself” (*tar ceann ḡur*, “over the head that” = although). *Iḡ ionḡna šuirpe an ḡraḡ rin do*

ἑαβαίρετ δαίμρα τὰρ ἑεανν Ῥήνν, ἀρ Δίαρμαῖδ, “it is a wonder for thee to give that love to me instead of (to) Finn” says Diarmaid” (τὰρ ἑεανν Ῥήνν, “over the head of Finn,” in preference to Finn, instead of Finn)

33. A proper noun with the genitive of a noun of office.*

When a proper noun is followed by a noun in the genitive signifying a profession, office, trade, or calling, the resulting phrase has a curious idiomatic meaning.

Seáḡan an ḡíḡeadópa, which is word for word, “John of the weaver,” means in reality “John (the son, son-in-law, servant, or some other close connection) of the weaver.” Seáḡan na baítreabáíḡe, “John (the son, &c.) of the widow.”

If, while the proper name is in the nominative, the second noun is also in the nominative, the meaning is quite different, the second noun being then simply in apposition to the first: thus Ῥeḡḡur maop (nom.) means “Fergus the steward;” but Ῥeḡḡur an ḡnaop (gen.) is “Fergus (the son, &c.) of the steward.”

Suppose, now, you have to express in Irish such a phrase as “the house of Fergus the steward,” in which the proper name must be in the genitive: as the two nouns are in apposition, the second, according to a rule of Syntax (Rule 6, p. 96) should also be in the genitive: τεαδ Ῥheḡḡur an ḡnaop. But here is an ambiguity; for, according to the present idiom, this expression would also mean “the house of Fergus (the son, &c.) of the steward.” To avoid this ambiguity, a disagreement in case is allowed in such expressions, between the two nouns, when they are in apposition. Thus “the house of Fergus the steward” is τεαδ Ῥheḡḡur maop (in which Ῥheḡḡur is gen. and maop nom.); whereas τεαδ Ῥheḡḡur an ḡnaop is understood to mean “the house of Fergus (the son, &c.) of the steward.” So in Dr. MacHale’s translation of Homer, the first two lines are rendered:—

Ὀρυε Ἀχιλ πενν, ὀḡ neaḡḡa, a’r buan ḡeapḡ;

Αχιλ mic Peil, an ḡaḡḡideac teḡnnteac ḡapḡ.

“The wrath of Achilles sing, O heavenly virgin, and his enduring anger, of Achilles son of Peleus, *the fiery fierce hero.*”

* The substance of this explanation and the illustrative examples have been taken from an interesting Essay on the present state of the Irish language in Munster, written and sent to the Royal Irish Academy by Mr. John Fleming of Rathgormuck.

Here the last noun $\zeta\alpha\iota\tau\eta\delta\epsilon\alpha\delta$, with its two adjectives, is in the nominative, while $\text{A}\mu\iota\lambda$, with which it is in apposition, is genitive.

In the first example, Rule 7, p. 96, $\text{bean Sheagham an } \text{f}\eta\zeta\epsilon\alpha\delta\acute{o}\rho\eta\alpha$, accordingly, is not "the wife of John the weaver," but "the wife of John (son, &c.) of the weaver;" the wife of John the weaver, would be expressed by $\text{bean Sheagham } \text{f}\eta\zeta\epsilon\alpha\delta\acute{o}\rho\eta$.

34. Possession.

There is no verb in Irish corresponding to the English verb "to have" as expressing possession; and the sentence "the man has a book," is expressed in Irish by the verb $\tau\acute{\alpha}$ and the preposition $\alpha\zeta$, in this form, $\tau\acute{\alpha}$ $\text{leabap } \alpha\zeta$ $\text{an } \text{d}\acute{\text{u}}\text{ine}$, "a book is at (or with) the man:" $\tau\alpha$ $\text{a}\iota\tau\eta\delta\epsilon\alpha\delta$ $\alpha\zeta\text{um}$ ("money is with me"), I have money: $\text{c}\iota\alpha$ $\text{b}\acute{\epsilon}$ $\alpha\zeta$ $\text{a } \text{b}\text{-}\text{p}\text{u}\text{i}\text{l } \text{a}\iota\tau\eta\delta\epsilon\alpha\delta$ ("whoever with whom is money"), whoever has money. $\text{N}\acute{\text{i}} \text{f}\acute{\epsilon}\text{i}\text{u}\text{i}\text{p } \text{le } \text{d}\acute{\text{u}}\text{ine } \text{an } \text{n}\acute{\text{i}}\text{o } \text{n}\acute{\text{a}}\text{c } \text{m}\text{-}\text{b}\text{e}\text{i}\text{u}\text{e}\text{a}\delta$ $\text{a}\iota\zeta\epsilon$ $\text{d}\acute{o}$ $\text{t}\acute{\text{a}}\text{b}\text{a}\text{i}\text{r}\text{t } \text{u}\text{a}\text{i}\delta$, $\alpha\zeta\text{up } \text{n}\acute{\text{i}} \text{b}\text{-}\text{p}\text{u}\text{i}\text{l } \text{d}\acute{o}\text{-}\text{m}\text{a}\text{r}\text{b}\acute{\text{h}}\text{e}\text{a}\text{c}\text{t } \alpha\zeta\text{u}\text{m}\text{p}\text{a}$, "it is impossible for a man to give away what he does not himself possess, and I do not possess immortality" (word-for-word: "it is not possible for a man the thing which would not be with him to give from him, and not is immortality with myself"). $\text{D}\acute{o}$ $\text{a}\iota\zeta\text{el } \text{C}\text{onc}\acute{\text{u}}\text{b}\text{ar } \text{b}\text{or}\text{a}\text{c } \text{a}\text{c}\text{a}\text{r } \text{d}\acute{o}$ $\text{f}\eta\text{a}\text{r}\text{p}\text{a}\text{i}\text{g } \text{d}\acute{\epsilon}$ $\text{an } \text{p}\text{a}\text{i}\text{b } \text{f}\text{le}\delta$ $\text{ollam } \text{a}\iota\zeta\epsilon$ $\text{d}\acute{o}$, "Conchobhar addressed Borach and inquired of him whether he had a feast prepared for him" (lit.: "whether a feast was ready with him [i.e. Borach] for him [i.e. Conchobar.]"

The use of pronouns in this idiom sometimes gives rise to further idiomatic complications. $\text{C}\iota\alpha$ $\alpha\zeta\text{u}\text{m}\text{ne } \alpha\zeta$ $\text{a } \text{b}\text{-}\text{p}\text{u}\text{i}\text{l } \text{an } \text{f}\eta\text{i}\text{m}\text{ne}$? "Which of us has the truth?" This is word for word: "Which of us with whom is the truth?" and the interrogative appears without any government or other syntactical connection. Some good authorities believe that the preposition $\alpha\zeta$ in this construction governs not only the relative α , but also, by a sort of attraction, the interrogative $\text{c}\iota\alpha$. $\text{C}\acute{\alpha}$ $\text{bean } \text{e}\text{i}\text{le } \text{a } \text{n}\text{-}\text{C}\text{o}\acute{\text{c}}\text{a}\text{i}\text{l}\text{l } \text{a } \text{b}\text{-}\text{p}\text{u}\text{i}\text{l } \text{a}\text{i}\text{c}\text{i } \text{c}\text{o}\text{r}\acute{o}\text{m } \text{a}\text{i}\text{p}$, "there is another woman in Youghal who has a crown on him" (i.e. to whom he owes a crown: Idiom 16). Here, also, there is an apparent redundancy, the act of "having" being expressed doubly, namely, both by the relative α before $\text{b}\text{-}\text{p}\text{u}\text{i}\text{l}$, and by $\text{a}\text{i}\text{c}\text{i}$; and the relative, according to the same authority, would be governed by the preposition $\alpha\zeta$ of $\text{a}\text{i}\text{c}\text{i}$. The sentence may be expressed without redundancy in this manner:— $\text{C}\acute{\alpha}$ bean

eile a n-Éoáall aḡ a ḃ-puil coróm aip. The last example exactly resembles the English "there is a man in Dublin whom I owe a pound to him:" and perhaps it would be better to consider it, like the English sentence, merely as bad grammar, which is to be avoided by using a different form of expression in the manner shown. The apparent redundancy of the first example, which is from a good authority, cannot, however, be got rid of in this way. So also in, cia léip an teacó rin (who owns that house), the le of léip would appear to govern the pronoun with which it is combined, and also the interrogative cia.

35. Ownership.

Ownership is expressed by the verb ip and the preposition le, with: ip leatpa an teacó, "the house belongs to thee" (lit. "it is with thee the house"): ip lem' aḡaip na ba rin, those cows belong to my father ("it is with my father those cows"): cia léip na ba rin, who owns those cows? ("who with him [are] those cows?") Oip ip le neacó éiḡin do Thuata De Danann na muca, "for the pigs belong to some person of the Tuatha De Danann." (A wizard holds a golden branch in his hand, and king Cormac asks him) an leat péin an ópaob rin? "Does that branch belong to thyself?"

Observe the distinction between this idiom and the last in the following sentence:—Ca aipḡeacó ḡo leóip aḡaḃ, acḡ ní leat péin é, "thou hast plenty of money, but it does not belong to thyself."

36. Wanting a thing.

The idea of wanting a thing, including a wish to get it, is usually expressed by the verb tá and the preposition ó from: ta leabap uaim, I want a book: lit., "a book is from me:" cneud atá uait? "What dost thou want?"

37. Genitive plurals of Personal Pronouns.

Each of the three prepositional pronouns, aḡaimn, aḡaib, aca, has two different meanings, which are always easily distinguished by the context.

1. Possession, as in Idiom 34: Do bí leabap aca, they had books.

2. The sense of a genitive plural when following words denoting a part: ḡacó fear aḡaimn, "each man of us;" no eipḡ an dara fear acofan do éanain an éleapa, "the

second man *of them* (acoran, "of themselves") arose to perform the feat:" CIA aḡumne aḡ a b-ful an fírinne, an Fíonn, "'which *of us* has the truth,' says Finn" (aḡ a b-ful, "with whom is" = "has:" see Idiom 34).

38. To give a name.

To give a name to a thing is often expressed in Irish by *to put a name on it*: MAP ZO TTYOTAP OÁ BANTUATÁC AP bhécoill aḡur AP Ohanann, "as (the name) 'two ladies' was put on Bechoill and Danann: i.e. as they "were called 'two ladies.'" MAP ZO D-TYOT clear AP an ḡ-clear Pm, "as he called that feat 'a feat:'" (lit. "as that he put [the name] 'feat' on that feat").

Sometimes, also, to give such and such a name to a thing is expressed by "to say such and such a name with a thing:" ROP-DÁ-ÍÁILEAC PIP A PÁIOTCAP LUMNEAC ANU, "Ros-da-shaileach which is called Limerick now" (lit. "R. with which is said 'Limerick' now").

39. De after comparatives.

The prepositional pronoun *de* "of it," is often postfixed to comparatives, giving rise to some idiomatic phrases. Aḡur ḡion ZO b-ful cuib aḡuinn DO MAPBÁO Diarmada, ní móib DO ḡeubáO (Aongur) an fírinne uaim, "and although we have no part in killing Diarmaid, Aongus would not *the more* receive the truth from us" (here móib *de* added to mó, the comparative of mór, great: for ḡion ZO = "although not:" see Idiom 11). IP PUPAIBE D'PHIONN AP lOPḡna leanam, an eacra beic aḡuinn, "it is the easier for Finn to follow our track that we have the horses" (PUPAIBE = *de* after PUPA, comparative of PUPUP, easy): i.e. "our having the horses makes it easier for Finn," &c.

40. "A man of great strength."

"A man of great strength," is expressed by the Irish PEP AP IP MOP NEAPT, which translated word for word is "a man (who) is great strength:" the words MOP NEAPT being in the nominative, and not in the genitive, as might be expected from the English "*of* great strength." This idiom is extremely common in Irish, the verb IP in some of its forms being always used; and when translating it, remember that the Irish words, though in the nominative case, convey the exact sense of the genitive with "*of*" in English, and must be

rendered accordingly. Ní raib a ḡ-cómampur rir fear ba mór ór aḡur airḡeab iná Diarmaid, "there was not at the same time with him a man who had more gold and silver than Diarmaid" (lit. "a man [who] was greater gold and silver," i.e. "a man who was *of* greater gold and silver.") Óo deapcar an beic ba maínda cruic, "I saw a lady (of) bright shape:" Talam ba fearr biaḡ aḡur deoc, "a land (of) the best food and drink:" Oirín ba tpeun nearc a' luic, "Oisín of mighty strength and vigour."

Sometimes the preposition ḡo (with) is used instead of the verb: as fear ḡo mór nearc, a man *with* great strength, i.e. a man of great strength.

41. A wish.

"I wish I had such and such a thing," is often expressed in Irish by some such form of phrase as "Alas that I have not got it!" the word ḡan being generally used as the negative particle. Ar tpuaiḡ ḡan peata 'n maoir aḡum! "I wish I had the shepherd's pet!" (Here ar tpuaiḡ, "it is pity" = "alas:" aḡum is used to denote possession, with its verb understood—Idiom 34: and the word-for-word translation is "it is pity not the pet of the shepherd with me." A Óha ḡan mé am' abaillín, "I wish I were an apple" ("O God, I not an apple"—or "in my apple.")

42. One noun asserted of another by cá.

When one noun is asserted of another (or of a pronoun) by the verb cá, in any of its forms, it requires the aid of the preposition a or ann, 'in,' and of one of the possessive pronouns, giving rise to a unique and extremely curious idiom. Thus "I am a man," if expressed in Irish by cá, will be (not cá mé fear, but) cá mé am' fear, which is word for word, "I am in my man." bí túra ad' rḡian aḡur mipe am' feoil, "be thou the knife and I the flesh." (lit. "be thou in thy knife and I in my flesh"). Bechoill aḡur Danann do bí i n-a m-banacḡearnaib, "Bechoill and Danann who were princesses" ("who were in their princesses"): ir fearr éirean míle uair ná túra, cuir a ḡ-cár ḡo b-fuil tú ad' rḡno ad' rḡmonna. "he is better a thousand times than thou, even supposing that thou art a king or a prince" (cuir a ḡ-cár, "put in case" = "suppose" or "although"): faḡaid na baome bár, cuir aca 'n-a

n-ḡánaib, aḡur cuib aca 'n-a pcan óirigiib, "men die ('receive death:' Idiom 3), "some of them (cuib aca: Idiom 37) as youths, and some as old men" ("some of them in their youths and some of them in their old men.") A Dhia, ḡan mé am aBaillín!" "would God that I were an apple!" ("O God without me in my apple!").

Even when one thing is not directly asserted of another, this use of the preposition and the possessive is extremely common in Irish. Támpe am' óodla, "I am asleep" ("I am in my sleep"): d'éirigi ma pcarain, "he stood up" ("he arose in his standing"): mipe am' aonar, "myself alone" ("myself in my one person"): clanna Lir ma ḡ-ccatpar, (the four children of Lir) ("the children of Lir in their four-persons").

The preposition ann is used with ta without any governed noun, to denote existence in general; as ta á aon Dhia aín ann, there is only one God; here the ann in the end, which has no representative in the translation, means "in it," i. e. in existence. Sometimes this ann answers very nearly to the English "here," or "there;" as ip tú ta á ann "it is thou who art in it—who art in existence—who art there."

43. Differences between ip and ta.

There are several differences, as to the manner of application, between ip and ta.

1. Ip is a simple copula, and is used to predicate one thing of another, or to connect an attribute with its subject; as ip mé an t-rlige, an p'pinnne, aḡur an beata, "I am the way, the truth, and the life."

But if existence in connection with place is to be predicated of the subject, ta is used; as ta mé a m-baile aca cliač, I am in Dublin: an paib tú ann pin? wert thou there?

If an adjective is to be predicated of a noun, either ip or ta may be used:—ip bpeaḡ an lá é, or ta an lá bpeaḡ, "it is a fine day," or "the day is fine."

2. Ip connects one noun or pronoun with another, as predicate and subject directly, and without the aid of any other word; as ip pcar mé, I am a man. But ta cannot do this without the aid of the preposition i or inn and the possessive pronoun, as already explained in last Idiom; as ta mé am' pcar, I am a man ("I am in my man.")

3. *Ir* expresses simply that a person or thing is so, and implies nothing more. But when the assertion is made by *τά*, there is *often* something more implied than is contained in the direct assertion—the idea that the person or thing has not always been so—has come to be so, &c. Thus, if you say to me *ir fear é*, your assertion means nothing more than that “he is a man”—not a woman or a coward, &c. If we see a figure approach in the dark, and that after looking close you find it is a man, your correct phraseology is, *ir fear é*, by which I understand you to mean “it is a man”—not a woman, or a beast, or a ghost.

But if you say to me *τα pé 'n-a fear* (“he is in his man”), here I take you to mean a very different thing—that he is now a man, no longer a boy, grown up to be a man. If I were speaking of a person as if he were a mere boy, and that you wished to correct this false impression, the proper phraseology would be, *τα pé 'n-a fear*.

But though this idea of an implied change is often contained in an assertion made by *τά*, it is not always so; as *ní b'fuil ac̄t aon Dia a'ánán ann, a' a 'n-a fear-r̄p̄ioraib̄*, there is only one God alone, who is a pure spirit: here the last assertion is made by *τά* though there can be no change.

4. *τά* is used with *aō* to denote possession (Idiom 43); *ir* is used with *le* to denote ownership (Idiom 44); in these two applications the two verbs cannot change places.

τά may indeed be used with *le*, but the idea conveyed is not “belonging to,” but “being favourable to:” *Do bí Eolup leo* (“Eolus was with them”), does not mean that they were the owners of Eolus (which would be the meaning if *ir* had been used), but that “Eolus was favourable to them”—“was on their side.”

5. *τά* is used with the Irish words for cold, heat, hunger, &c., as in Idiom 36; as *τά oc̄nar opm*, hunger is in me, I am hungry: here *ir* cannot be used.

6. When the comparative of an adjective is used as in the following sentences, either verb will answer:—*ir fear̄b̄re é ná m̄re* or *τά pé n̄op fear̄b̄re ná m̄re*, he is richer than I.

But when the superlative is employed, *ir*, not *τά*, must be used:—*ir é ir fear̄n ir fear̄b̄re fan dúic̄de é*, he is the richest man in the country.

APPENDIX.

ADDITIONAL EXAMPLES OF DECLENSIONS.

FIRST DECLENSION.

Երեաց, a trout.

	Singular.	Plural.
N.	երեաց.	երիւ.
G.	երիւ.	երեաց.
D.	երեաց.	երեացաւ.
V.	ա երիւ.	ա երեացա.

SECOND DECLENSION.

Կօր, a foot.

N.	կօր.	կօրս.
G.	կօրո	կօր.
D.	կօր.	կօրաւ.

THIRD DECLENSION.

Քիջածոր, a weaver; masc.

N.	քիջածոր.	քիջածորիջե.
G.	քիջածորս.	քիջածոր
D.	քիջածոր.	քիջածորիւ.

Ատար, a father; masc.

N.	ատար.	ատրք, ատրք- աճա.
G.	ատար.	ատրքս.
D.	ատար.	ատրքսաւ.

(Մատար, a mother, and Երաճար or ԵարԵրաճար, a brother, are declined in the same way.)

Յիսթամ, a year; fem.

N.	յիսթամ.	յիսթամս.
G.	յիսթոն.	յիսթան.
D.	յիսթամ	յիսթամսաւ.

Անն, a name.

N.	անն.	աննա.
G.	աննե, աննա.	անն.
D.	անն	աննաւ.

FOURTH DECLENSION.

Շեմե, a fire.

	Singular.	Plural.
N.	շեմե.	շեմք
G.	շեմե.	շեմս.
D.	շեմե.	շեմսիւ.

Էմն, a little bird.

N.	էմն.	էմնիւք.
G.	էմն.	էմն.
D.	էմն.	էմնիւ.

FIFTH DECLENSION.

Լանաին, a married couple.

N.	լանաին.	լանաինս.
G.	լանաինան.	լանաինան.
D.	լանաինան.	լանաինանիւ.

IRREGULAR NOUNS.

Ճա, a spear.

N.	ճա, ճա՛.	ճաօի, ճա՛ետա, ճաօի՛ք.
G.	ճաի, ճաօի.	ճա՛, ճա՛ետս, ճաօի՛ս.
D.	ճա, ճաի.	ճաօիւ, ճա՛տա ճաօի՛ւ.

Երօ, a hut, a sheepfold.

N.	երօ.	երօի՛ք, երօ՛ւք.
G.	երօ.	երօ.
D.	երօ.	երօի՛ւ, երօ՛ւ իւ.
V.	ա օրօ.	ա րօի՛ք, ա րօ՛ւք.

Տիս, a mountain.

N.	տիս.	տիսի՛ք
G.	տիսի.	տիսի՛քս.
D.	տիս.	տիսի՛ւ.





